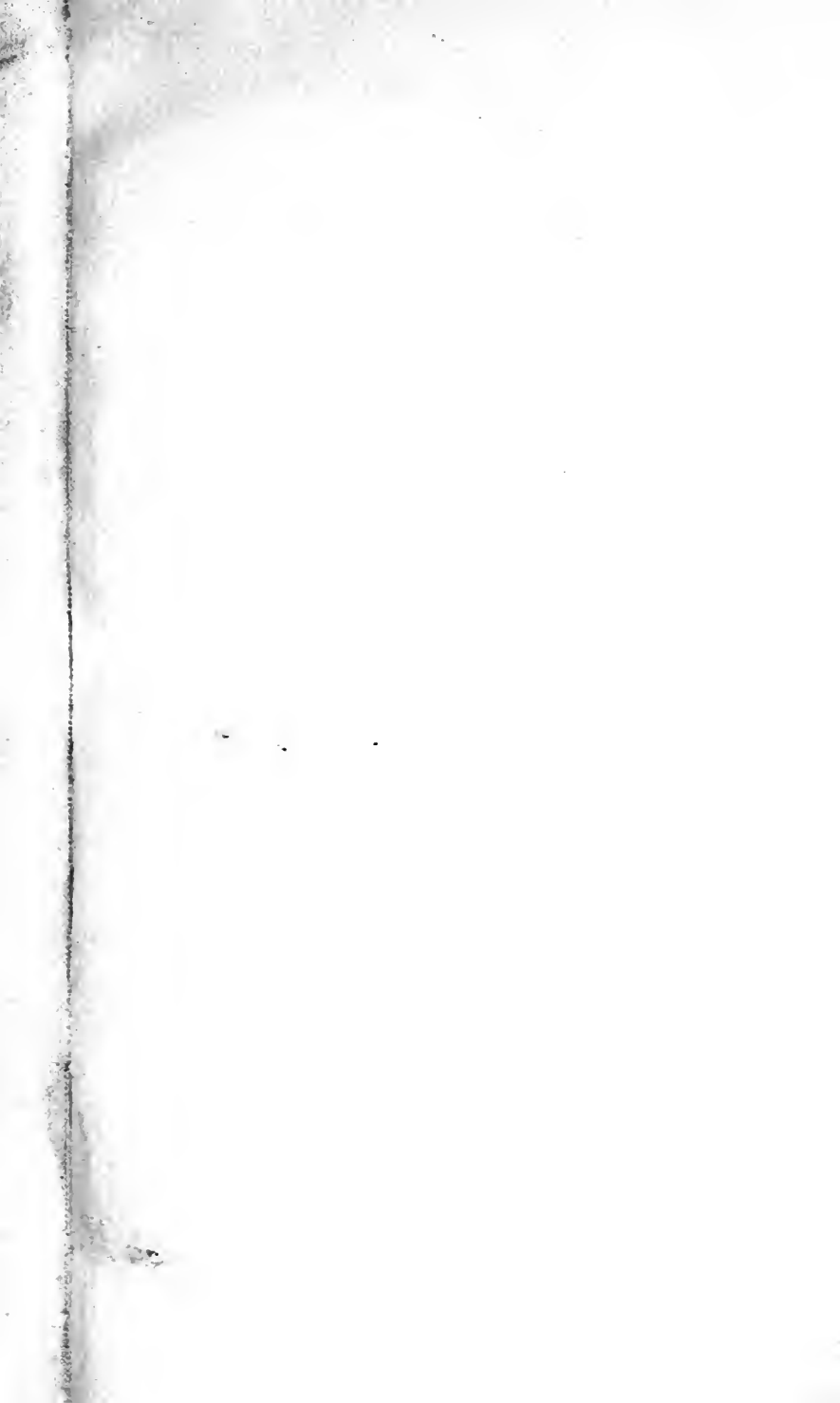




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A

GRAMMAR

OF

THE GERMAN LANGUAGE.

BY

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LONDON:

JOHN MURRAY, ALBEMARLE STREET.

1830.

PRINTED BY RICHARD TAYLOR,
PRINTER TO THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON,
RED LION COURT, FLEET STREET.



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P R E F A C E.

THE present work is intended to afford to English readers the means of studying the German language, in conformity with those views of its structure which have of late been introduced by the grammarians of Germany.

It is generally admitted, that those German Grammars which have hitherto been published for the use of Englishmen, are very incomplete, and incapable of leading to a full understanding of the language. They moreover, all of them, adhere to a method derived from the German grammarians of the last century, who endeavoured to arrange their observations according to the antiquated forms of the Latin Grammars of that period. Whatever success may have attended that method in the study of other modern languages, it has long been found quite improper in German grammar; for whilst it was followed, the true principles of the structure of the language remained unknown; rules which are extremely simple were rendered very complicated; and above all, the study of the language was made notoriously difficult to foreigners.

In the mean time some German grammarians, among whom the greatest merit is unquestionably due to Dr. J. Grimm, have opened a new road to the study of the German language, by their historical investigations into the ancient Teutonic tongue, and by their comparisons of the different languages and dialects derived from that common source. At the same time the principles of general grammar have been very successfully elucidated by other philosophical inquirers, among whom Baron W. von Humboldt occupies the most prominent station. The author of this work has been for some time engaged in similar researches. He first endeavoured to point out the laws of the formation of words in the German language (*Deutsche Wortbildung*. Frankfurt, 1824); subsequently he published a treatise on the Philosophy of Language (*Organism der Sprache*. Frankfurt, 1827); and, the views laid down in these writings having obtained the approbation of his countrymen, he has recently prepared a Grammar of the German language for the use of Germans (*Deutsche Grammatik*. Frankfurt, 1829). Upon that work the present German Grammar for the use of Englishmen has been modelled, with such additions, omissions, and modifications, as were thought expedient in accommodating its contents to English readers. It has been the author's wish to avoid all lengthened details on the more abstract parts of German grammar: and he has accordingly, for the direction of those who may wish to enter into these researches, made frequent references to his works published in the German language. He has thought

proper, however, to give a short view of those principles of general grammar, which his inquiries have led him to adopt, and an acquaintance with which will be found greatly to facilitate the right understanding of the particular rules of German grammar. These principles will be found in the Introduction; the perusal of which the author would recommend to such readers as are not altogether averse to theory, and especially to those *teachers* of the German language who may be disposed to employ this Grammar as a guide for instruction.

The author is fully aware, that in introducing to the English reader a grammatical terminology in a great measure new, and in devoting more attention than is usually done to the theoretical part of the Grammar, he incurs the risk of discouraging many of those who wish to acquire only a practical knowledge of the language: but he can positively affirm, that, the first apparent difficulties being overcome, the rules of German grammar will be found reduced to extreme simplicity and comprehensiveness; and he may be allowed to state, that more than ten years' constant experience in teaching the principles of the German language to Englishmen, appears to him fully to show the practical advantages of the method which he recommends.

In teaching German to foreigners, the author is in the habit of first placing in their hands the Grammatical Tables, which form the Appendix to this work. With the assistance of these Tables and of a

dictionary, they *immediately* (i. e. without any previous exercise of memory in learning declensions, conjugations, or other rules) begin to translate from English into German. He is of opinion that foreigners will acquire a knowledge of the German language in the most expeditious, and at the same time the most correct manner, by making such translations, with a constant reference to the Tables, and to the paragraphs of the Grammar in which the contents of the Tables are more fully explained. It has on this account been thought unnecessary to increase the bulk of the work by exercises upon each rule ; for every English author may serve as an exercise book for the application of all the rules, each of which will easily be found in the Grammar, with the assistance of the Tables and of the alphabetical Index. Each rule, however, is illustrated by German examples, with English translations ; and, moreover, a series of quotations from the best German authors, chiefly Schiller and Goethe, has been added ; in translating which the student will familiarize himself particularly with the idiomatical expressions of the German language.

Those who are acquainted with the subject of this work, will at first sight discover in what respects it differs from other books bearing a similar title. They will find that it adopts the formation of words as the foundation of German grammar ; that in enlarging upon the laws of the formation of words, it shows their intimate connection with the laws of inflection ; that it deduces from the same source the gender of

substantives, the explanation of which has hitherto baffled all attempts at artificial rules, and the declension of substantives and adjectives, for which each Grammar has proposed a peculiar system, but which is now reduced to its natural simplicity ; and that it does away with the long list of irregular verbs, which have always been so heavy a burden to the memory of students, but are now almost all classed in a few regular conjugations. The introduction of the author's views on general grammar has led to the important distinction between Notional and Relational words ; in consequence of which the rules relative to pronouns and auxiliary verbs appear in a new light : also to a new classification of cases, of the relations expressed by them, and of the prepositions which are employed instead of them. The laws of German syntax have been simplified, and at the same time rendered precise, by being reduced under the heads of the three combinations (Predicative, Attributive, and Objective). Much attention is paid to the subject of Compound sentences : and the construction of sentences, which has always appeared extremely difficult to foreigners, is explained in a few rules, so as scarcely to leave any room for committing errors.

The author has to apologize for having frequently made use of English words in acceptations altogether unusual. Of this description are particularly the expressions, Notion, Relation, Notional and Relational words, Activity and Existence, Attributive, Predicative, and Objective Factors and Combinations, Subjective,

Adjective, and Adverbial sentences, Coordinative and Subordinative conjunctions, &c. All these terms, however, appeared to him necessary, in order to avoid lengthened circumlocutions; and he hopes that no disadvantage will result from them, as their definitions will in all instances be easily found by means of the frequent references from one paragraph to another, and by consulting the alphabetical Index.

Offenbach on the Maine,
September 1829.

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A GRAMMAR OF THE GERMAN LANGUAGE.

INTRODUCTION.

§ 1.

SPEECH is the natural medium for the communication of human thought. The *materials* of thought consist of the *Notions* of persons, things, and actions (*Begriffe*). Its *form*, on the other hand, consists of the *Relations* (*Beziehungen*) which those notions bear to one another as well as to the speaker. Hence language, the expression of thought, consists of *Notional Words* (*Begriffswörter*) which represent persons, things, or actions, as *father, dog, house, river, bark, come, deep*, together with *Signs of Relation*; and these Signs of Relation are either mere *Terminations* (*Endungen*), or *Relational Words* (*Formwörter*). For example, in the following sentences, *my father's falling house; the dog barks; the boy comes here; the river is deep*; the relations of *father, fall, house, &c.* to one another, and to the speaker, are expressed either by the terminations *s, ing, s, es*, or by the relational words *my, the, here, is*.

§ 2.

All notional words are either *Roots* (*Wurzeln*), i. e. words from which other words are derived, but which themselves are underived: e. g. *bind, grow, flee, find*; or *Derivative Words*, which, again, are either *Primary Forms* (*Stämme*), derived immediately from roots, e. g. *bound, bond, great, growth, flight, found*; or *Secondary Forms* (*Sproßformen*), i. e. words

derived from primary forms, e. g. *bondage*, *greatness*, *flighty*, *foundling*. Roots are the expressions of *Radical Notions* (Wurzelbegriffe), whilst derivative words express *Derivative Notions* (Abgeleitete Begriffe). The radical notion, variously modified, continues to be expressed by all the derivatives formed from a root, in the same way as the fundamental sounds of the root, *Radical Sounds* (Wurzellaute), are retained, although equally modified. Thus the radical notion of *binding*, as well as the radical sounds *b* and *nd*, is to be found in the derivatives *band* and *bondage*, formed from the root *bind*. Whilst, on the one hand, we recognise a derivative word by the identity of its sounds with the radical sounds—we, on the other hand, appreciate its meaning by comparing the derivative with the radical notion*.

Observation.—Derivative words are, in general, more perfectly understood, in proportion as it is easy to trace their connection with their respective roots. The German derivatives, in general, issue from roots belonging to the same language, most of which are still in use: they are, therefore, more perfectly understood, than the derivatives of those modern languages which result from a mixture of two or more languages. Thus the word Bündniß, derived from Bund, which again is formed from the root binden (to bind), is more perfectly understood than the English word *alliance*, derived from the Latin *ligare*, or from the French *lier*. The laws of German derivation are indispensable to those who wish to become thoroughly acquainted with the significations of German words.

§ 3.

All notions, expressed by language, are either *notions of an activity* (Begriffe einer Thätigkeit), or *notions of an existence* (Begriffe eines Seins)†. The notion of an activity is expressed by a *Verb*, when the activity is contemplated as bearing the relations of Person, Time, and Mood to the speaker (see § 8); e. g. he *drank*, he *fled*, the tree *grows*: it is expressed by an *adjective* when it is not thus related to the speaker; e. g. a *drunken* person, a *flighty* thought, a *great* tree. The notion of an existence, i. e. of a person or thing which really exists, or is conceived by the mind as existing, is expressed by a *substantive*: e. g. a *drinker*, a *drink*, the *flock*,

* Deutsche Grammatik, § 3.

† Organism, § 25; Grammatik, § 4.

the *flight*, the *growth*. All notional words, accordingly, are either verbs, adjectives, or substantives.

§ 4.

It may be affirmed, in general, that *all roots are verbs**, and that all radical notions (§ 2.) are notions of activity. All substantives, as well as adjectives, are therefore derived from verbs; and all notions, expressed by substantives, are notions of activity, transformed into notions of existence. All substantives, therefore, imply either an *active subject*, as a *duck* from to duck, a *snake* from to sneak; or 2dly, an *effect*, as a *song* from to sing, a *bit* from to bite, a *speech* from to speak; or 3dly, the *abstract notion* of an activity, as *flight*, *growth*, from to flee, to grow †.

Observation.—Grammarians commonly distinguish in the signification of verbs and adjectives, *doing* (activity), *suffering* (passiveness), and a *condition*, which is neither active nor passive (neuter). In comprehending, however, under the general notion of activity, besides activity properly so called, the notion of suffering, in which the subject of the verb is an object of an activity, and that of a condition, which may be regarded as a permanent activity, we are in agreement with the historical fact, that the distinction of Doing, Suffering, and Condition does not originally exist in radical verbs. The fundamental notion of most of these verbs is that of an intransitive action; which is, however, conceived in so general a manner, that it easily comprehends action as well as passion and condition; all of which present themselves merely as modifications of the fundamental notion. In the English and German languages many verbs are used even now, both in an active and in a passive signification, as, *to please*, *to look*, *to smell*; e. g. *do whatever you please*, and *whatever pleases you*; *I look at him*, and *he looks pale*; *I smell a rose*, and *the rose smells*.

§ 5.

Verbs are called *Transitive*, if their notion is incomplete, without the supplementary notion of an object (see § 177), conceived to be affected by the action, which the verb expresses: e. g. *to blame* (a person), *to bless* (a person), *to bribe*, *to cherish*, *to support*. Verbs are called *Intransitive*, if their notion, in order to be complete, requires either no supplementary notion whatever, or that of an object, which is not con-

* Organism, § 25; Grammar, § 33.

† Grammar, § 4.

ceived to be affected by the action expressed by the verb: e. g. to *walk*, to *sleep*, to *stand*, to *fall*, to *depend* (upon something), to *long* (for something). Transitive verbs are called *Factitive*, if they imply an action, which again causes an intransitive action of the supplementary object: e. g. to *fell*, to *raise* (to make one fall, to make one rise *). In German, a few intransitive radical verbs are used also in the factitive signification, as *fahren*, *sieden*, *biegen*, *brechen*; but the most part of factitive verbs are derivatives, as *fällen*, to *fell*; *tränken*, to make one drink; *fäugen*, to give suck. There is a particular form of intransitive verbs, for the most part formed from factitive verbs, by joining with them the reflective pronoun in the accusative case: e. g. *Sich rühmen* (to praise one's-self), to boast; *Sich wenden* (to turn one's-self), to turn; *Sich bücken*, to bow; *Sich schämen*, to be ashamed. These verbs, which correspond to Greek verbs in the middle voice, are termed *Reflective* †.

§ 6.

Substantives are, either names of *persons*, as *man*, *father*, *gardener*, or names of *things*. The latter again are either *Concrete*, i. e. names of things really existing, as *house*, *tree*, *knife*; or *Abstract*, i. e. names denoting activity and modes of activity, which are, however, conceived by the mind as real existences, e. g. *course*, *life*, *pride*, *friendship*, *freedom*. Concrete substantives are either *names of materials* (*Stoffnamen*), i. e. names of things in which no individual is distinguished, as *water*, *milk*, *sand*, *iron*, *money*, *grass*; or 2dly, *common names* (*Gemeinnamen*), i. e. names of a species, comprehending individuals, as *soldier*, *horse*, *tree*, *house*; or 3dly, *proper names* (*Eigennamen*), i. e. names of individuals, not conceived as individuals of a species, as *John*, *Pitt*, *London*, *Rhine*. Substantives which comprehend a multitude of individuals under the abstract notion of a unity, such as *nation*, *senate*, *society*, *clergy*, are termed *Collective* substantives: they may be regarded as belonging to the abstract class; and we shall find accordingly, that, in German, their formation is the same as that of other abstract substantives. (See § 43, 46, 47, 48 ‡).

* Organism, § 26.

† Grammatik, § 5.

‡ Grammatik, § 6.

Observation.—All German substantives, and words used substantively, are in writing distinguished by capital initial letters, as *das Haus*, the house; *die Tugend*, the virtue; *der Alte*, the old man; *die Sechse*, the number six; *das Nichts*, nothing.

§ 7.

Adjectives are termed *Attributive*, if they stand only in the relation of agreement with a substantive; as a *large* house, a *kind* father. They are termed *Predicative*, if they are connected with the verb *to be*, which expresses the relations of personality, of time, and of mood, and by means of this connection assumes the power of a verb (§ 3.); e. g. the house *is large*, the father *was kind*. In the connection of the attributive adjective with a substantive, the latter is frequently omitted; and the adjective, thus *used substantively*, implies the notion of the substantive understood: as, *the learned*, i. e. the learned men. This practice is very common in German; but it is admissible only when the substantive understood implies either the notion of a *person* generally, and without any further distinction than that of *sex*, or the notion of *things* in the most general and indefinite way. Adjectives used substantively are in the masculine or feminine gender, if they imply persons; they are in the neuter gender, if they imply things: as, *ein Weiser*, a wise man; *der Arme*, the poor man; *die Guten*, the good ones; *die Alte*, the old woman; *eine Schöne*, a fair one; and *das Gute*, good things; *das Neue*, new things; *das Große*, great things *.

From adjectives used substantively, which retain the inflection and the whole shape of adjectives, we must distinguish *Adjective Substantives*, which, in the same manner, are originally adjectives, but have assumed the inflection and the whole form of substantives, and have ceased to be considered as adjectives. They are either masculine names of persons and animals, as *Held*, hero; *Hirt*, herdsman; *Affe*, ape; *Ochse*, ox

* Dem Tapfern, dem Entschlossenen ist sie günstig. Schiller.

Die Guten hätten Kraft bei ihm behalten, nicht in der Schlechten Gatt wär' er gefallen. Sch.

Das Ungemeine soll, das Höchste selbst geschehn wie das Alltägliche. Sch.

Es muß der Tausch geschehn zwischen Zeitlichem und Ewigem. Sch.

Das Gute liebt das Gute. Sch.

Ein Verborgenes ist sich das Schönste. Sch.

(see § 35); or neuter abstract substances, as *daß Weiß*, the white colour; *daß Grün*, the green colour; *daß Uebel*, the evil; *daß Recht*, the law*.

§ 8.

The relations of notions (§ 1) are either the relations of notions *one to another*, or the relations of notions to the *person who speaks*. The relations of notions one to another are of three kinds:—first, that of the predicate to the subject; secondly, that of an attributive to a substantive; and thirdly, that of an object to the predicate (see § 11, 12, 13). The relations of notions to the *speaker* are twofold, inasmuch as these notions must be either notions of an *activity*, or notions of an *existence* (§ 3).

The relations of *notions of activity* are:—

a. The relation of *Mood*. It distinguishes the real *existence* or real *non-existence*, the *necessity* or the mere *possibility* of an action referred to the real existence of the speaker; e. g. your friend *is coming*, he comes *indeed*, he *is not* coming, he *must* come, *come* here, if he *might* or *should* come, *perhaps* he will come.

b. The relation of *Time*. The time of an action is conceived as present, past, or future, merely in reference to the present existence of the speaker: e. g. he *is* writing, he *has* written, he *will* write, he *now* writes, he will write *soon*.

c. The relation of *Intensity*: e. g. he runs *swiftly*, he runs *more* swiftly, he runs *most* swiftly, he runs *very* swiftly.

The relations of *notions of existence* are:—

a. The relation of *Personality* by which a subject is distinguished, as being either the speaker himself (*I* write), or as spoken to (*you* write), or as spoken of (*he* writes).

b. The relation of *Locality*, as far as it is determined by the place which the speaker occupies: e. g. he lives *here*, he goes *there*. The relations of space, distinguished by *above* and *below*, *before* and *behind*, *within* and *without*, are also of this description.

c. The relation of *Number* and *Quantity*. The former is

* Grammatik, § 8.

the relation of persons and things conceived as individuals: e. g. *three* boys, *six* horses, *many* trees: the latter refers to things conceived as material, without any distinction of individuals; e. g. *some* bread, *much* money *.

§ 9.

The relations of notions one to another, as well as the relations of notions to the speaker, are expressed either by *Inflection*; e. g. the *farmer-s* house, the father *speak-s*, the father *command-ed*, the boy *spoke*, a *happi-er* man: or by *Relational words* (§ 1), e. g. the house *of* the farmer, the father *is* speaking, he *has* commanded, a *more* happy man. Most of the latter are derived from radical verbs, and therefore were originally notional words (§ 2); they have now come to imply merely relations of notions, and do not differ in their present signification from the terminations of inflection. The use of relational words increases in languages in the same proportion as the power of inflection diminishes.

The power of inflection of the German language, although inferior to that of the ancient languages, is greatly superior to that of the English; a variety of relations, therefore, which the English language distinguishes by means of separate relational words, are in German expressed by way of inflection.

§ 10.

The following kinds of words are to be considered as *Relational words*:—

1.) *Pronouns*, and all derivatives of pronouns. Pronouns are not derived from radical verbs; and it seems that they originally do not imply any notion (§ 2), but merely a relation, viz. that of *personality* (§ 8) †.

2.) The verb *to be*. This verb also appears originally to imply, not a notion, but mere relation; viz. that of the predicative adjective (or substantive, § 11) to the subject, and those of mood, time, and personality (§ 8) ‡.

3.) The *Auxiliary verbs of mood and tense*. The auxiliary verbs of mood, as *I can*, *I may*, *I must*, imply the relation of

* Grammatik, § 10.

† Organism, § 50.

‡ Organism, § 56, 57.

mood; and those of *tense*, e. g. *I have* (loved), imply the relation of *time* (§ 8 *).

4.) *Numerals* definite, as *two, four*; and indefinite, as *many, much, all*. They seem to be primitively notional words, but now merely express the relation of *number* and *quantity* (§ 8).

5.) *Prepositions* appear to be words which have lost their notional value, and now merely point out the relations of an object to the predicate; viz. that of *place*: he lives *in* town;—that of *time*: he left us *after* dinner;—and, if employed instead of case, the relation of *causality*: guilty *of* a crime (Lat. *criminis*); to starve *with* hunger (Lat. *fame*).

6.) *Conjunctions*. They are either pronouns, as *when, then, so, that*, or other relational words, as *also, but, though*. They express the relations of one sentence to another.

7.) All *Adverbs* which imply relations to the speaker. Such are all *Pronominal* adverbs, as *here, there, then, hither, thither*; the adverbs of *mood*, as *not, perhaps, indeed*; the adverbs of *time*, as *now, soon, lately, yesterday*; the adverbs of *place*, as *above, below, forwards, backwards*; and some adverbs of *quantity* and *intensity*, as *scarcely, only, too, very, most* (§ 8).

Observation.—*Interjections* imply neither notions nor relations of notions, and are not necessarily connected with the sentence; we therefore do not consider them as parts of the sentence, but rather as sounds produced by the immediate impulse of the sensations of joy, sorrow, admiration, &c. In German, joy is expressed by *ah! ah! heifa! juchhei!* sorrow by *ach! oh!* admiration by *ei! oh!* disgust by *fi! pfui!* The expressions *wehe! oh weh! wehe dir! woe to you! leider! alas! pfui der Schande! for shame! Gottlob! thank God!* and others of the same description, which are frequently employed as interjections, are to be regarded in the light of elliptical sentences.

§ 11.

A *Sentence* (Satz), i. e. a thought expressed by words, (e. g. *men die, or men are mortal*), consists of two *members*, viz. the *subject* (men), i. e. the notion of a person or thing spoken of, and the *predicate* (die, mortal), i. e. the notion of an activity which the speaker refers to the subject. The relation of the predicate to the subject is termed the *Predicative relation*, and the combination of notions, which is the result of this relation,

* Grammatik, § 82, 83.

the *Predicative combination* (Prädikatives Satzverhältnis); the subject and the predicate are called the *Factors* of the predicative combination *. The relation of the predicate to the subject is expressed in the predicate by those forms of inflection which imply *concord* (Kongruenz) of notions. The sentence, however, denotes also the act itself, by which the speaker refers the predicate to the subject, which is expressed in the predicate by such forms of inflection as denote relations to the speaker; viz. those of personality, of mood, and of time (§ 8). The predicate is generally expressed either by a verb, or by an adjective connected with the subject by the verb *to be* (§ 10). The room of the adjective, however, is frequently occupied by a substantive, as, this person is *a thief*, this person is *of age*.

§ 12.

The notion of an activity may be in the relation of concord (§ 11) to the notion of a person or thing, without any explicit affirmation on the part of the speaker: e. g. *a mortal man, a dying woman, a large house*. Such a notion (mortal, dying, large) is called an *Attributive*, the relation in which it is placed is termed an *Attributive relation*, and the peculiar combination which results from this relation receives the name of the *Attributive combination* (Attributives Satzverhältnis †). The attributive combination consists of two factors, viz. the *attributive factor* (mortal, dying, large), and the *substantive, to which it refers* (Beziehungswort), man, woman, house. The attributive is generally expressed by an adjective, and the relation of concord is in German, as in the ancient languages, pointed out by the inflection of the adjective, e. g. ein Sterblich-er Mensch, eine Sterbend-e Frau, ein groß-es Haus. The place of the attributive adjective, however, is frequently occupied either by a substantive in apposition, e. g. William *the Conqueror*, or by a substantive in the genitive case, e. g. the *father's* house, the *king's* brother.

§ 13.

A notion may also be in the relations of causality, i. e. cause or effect; of locality, of time, or of manner to a predicate :

* Grammatik, § 182.

† Grammatik, § 183, 184.

this constitutes the *Objective relation*, from which results the *Objective combination* (Objectives Satzverhältniß),—e. g. He writes a letter, he lives in the country, he works in the night, he acts honestly*. The objective, like the predicative combination, consists of two *factors*: the *objective factor* (a letter, in the country, in the night, honestly), and the *predicate* to which it refers (writes, lives, works, acts). The various kinds of relation, in the objective factor, are expressed in different ways: the relation of causality is originally expressed by cases; those of place and of time, by prepositions; and that of manner, by adverbs or adverbial forms†. In those languages, however, the inflective power of which is still prominent, such as the German, even place, time, and manner may be expressed by cases; whilst on the other hand, in languages like the English, the inflective power of which is very limited, the relation of causality also is for the most part expressed by prepositions.

Observation.—The subject of a sentence (man) may in all cases assume the form of an attributive combination (frail man), whilst the predicate may take that of an objective combination (delights in amusements). The attributive factor, again (frail), may be modified by an objective, and the objective by an attributive factor; so that both of them are converted into combinations,—viz. the attributive factor into an objective combination, and the objective factor into an attributive combination:—e. g. *Man, frail by nature, delights in transient amusements.* Thus it is evident, that every sentence, to whatever extent the relations which it comprehends may have been multiplied, is composed of only three kinds of combinations,—the predicative, attributive, and objective.

§ 14.

Notional words (§ 1) come to be members of a sentence, and to take part in the expression of a thought, only in as far as they are factors in one of the three combinations; and the degree of their importance in the construction of the sentence, depends entirely on the place which they occupy in the combination to which they belong. The two factors of one and the same combination are not of equal importance. In the predicative combination, the predicate is the principal notion; and, therefore, the predicate is *the principal factor*

* Grammatik, § 185.

† Organism, § 68, 69.

(Hauptwort). In the same way, the attributive and the objective factors express the principal notions, and therefore are the *principal factors* of the attributive and objective combinations. The subordinate factors, on the other hand, are the subject in the predicative, the substantive referred to in the attributive, and the verb or adjective referred to in the objective combination. When, however, the attributive or objective factor is represented by a pronoun, or other relational word,—e. g. *my friend*, he told *me*, he lives *here*, he sleeps *perhaps*;—it is not considered as the principal, but as the subordinate factor, as appears by its subordinate accentuation (§ 15). By means of this subordination of the factors, the two members of the predicative combination do not express *two* thoughts, but only *one* thought: e. g. *the dog barks*, *man is mortal*; and the two factors of the attributive, as well as of the objective combination, do not express *two* notions, but *one* notion—viz. the former, that of a person or thing modified by the attribute, as, *a wise man*, *a large house*; and the latter, that of an activity modified by the object, as, *to write a letter*, *to live in town* *.

§ 15.

Every notional word in the sentence, except the subject, stands in some relation to another word. These words, therefore, must be regarded as consisting of two constituent parts, one representing the notion itself, and the other its relation. The notion is expressed by the *stem*, i. e. by the word itself, in a shape not yet modified by inflection; the relation of the word to another word is represented either by a termination, or by a relational word which stands in the place of a termination: e. g. *father-s*, *of the father*, *to the father*, *lov-ed*, *has spoken*; in which *father*, *lov*, *spoken*, are the stems expressing notion, and *s*, *of*, *to*, *ed*, *has*, the signs signifying the relation. These signs of relation are subordinate to the stems, in the same manner as in the combination the factor referred to is subordinate to the principal factor. In all derivative words, also, the notion itself is to be distinguished from the relation by which it is modified, and in virtue of which the derivative

* Grammatik. § 14, 15.

differs from the stem, and from other derivatives. In the secondary derivatives, *found-ling*, *might-y*, *thank-ful*, the notion itself is expressed by the primary form *found*, *might*, *thank*, whilst the terminations *ling*, *y*, *ful*, imply the relation by which the notion is modified. The terminations are subordinate to the primary form which contains the notion.

Accentuation (Betonung) serves to express the unity of a notion, as well as the subordination of its constituent parts, not only in the combination, but also in each of its factors, and in secondary derivatives. Unity of the notion is represented by unity of the accent (Ton); the subordination of the constituent parts is pointed out by a corresponding subordination of the accents with which they are pronounced.

The *Principal accent* (Hauptton) falls upon the principal factor of the combination, and upon the notional constituent of each factor, i. e. the stem of each inflective word as well as of each secondary derivative. The *Subordinate accent* (untergeordnete Ton), on the other hand, falls upon the subordinate factor of the combination, and upon the signs of relation of each factor. Thus, in the expressions, *man is mortal*, *a skilful teacher*, *he writes a letter*, *of gold*, *by art*, *has told*, *lov-ed*, *found-ling*, *thank-ful*, the principal accent is taken by *mortal*, *skilful*, *letter*, *gold*, *art*, *told*, *lov*, *found*, *thank*; whilst the subordinate accent falls upon *man*, *teacher*, *writes*, *of*, *by*, *has*, *ed*, *ling*, *full* *.

Observation.—Accentuation, founded upon the value of words in the sentence, and of syllables in each word, according to the distinctions here laid down of notions and relations, is more uniformly observed and more strictly attended to in the German than in the other modern languages. The German language, moreover, requires a stronger and more decided accentuation, by means of a rise, fall, and varied impetus of the voice, than that which is admitted by other languages. Foreigners, therefore, in order to speak German correctly, have not only to arrive at an accurate discrimination of the syllables and words which require to be accentuated from those which do not, but also to appropriate to themselves the peculiar energy of German accentuation.

§ 16.

All signs of relation (§ 1) have the subordinate accent.

* Grammatik, § 15.

We distinguish, however, those which are *unaccented* (tonlos), as the terminations in *speak-er*, *gold-en*, *might-y*, and the pronoun *it*, from those which are *semi-accented* (halbtonig), as the terminations in *wis-dom*, *friend-ship*, *law-ful*, and the auxiliary verbs *has*, *will*, *shall*. In German, all terminations of derivation as well as inflection are unaccented, except the signs of derivation: *-schaft*, *-thum*, *-lein*, *-ling*, *-ung*, *-heit*, *-sal*, *-at*, *-ut*, *-bar*, *-sam*, *-haft*, *-icht*, which have the semi-accent. The prefixes, *be-*, *er-*, *ver-*, *ent-*, *zer-*, and the augment *ge-*, are also unaccented. The semi-accent, on the other hand, is taken by all relational words (§ 10), except the articles, by the pronoun *es*, and by the preposition *zu*, if standing as a sign of the supine: e. g. *zu sprechen*, *to speak*. When relational words are inflected, the stem has the semi-accent, and the termination is unaccented, as in *mei-n-en*, *ha-b-en*, *wer-d-en*.

The regular accentuation of words and syllables is different from *Emphasis* (Hedeton), i. e. the stress laid upon those words or syllables, which the speaker wishes particularly to point out: e. g. *er spricht* (it is *he* who speaks, not another), *zu dem Vater* (*to*, not *from* the father), *eine Fürst-in* (a princ-ess, not a prince).

§ 17.

The *Eurythmy* (Wehlklang) of whole sentences and of their constituent combinations, as well as of single words, consists in a just proportion of syllables accented and unaccented, or semi-accented. Eurythmy not only pleases the ear by variety of accent, but essentially contributes to render speech intelligible. For the unity of thought in a sentence, and the unity of notion in combinations and single words, as well as the subordination of their constituents (§ 15), can be more distinctly pointed out by accentuation, in proportion as the rhythmical shape of combination and words is more perfect. The most perfect shape of words, in point of eurythmy, is the disyllabic, in which only *one* termination is connected with a stem of *one* syllable, as in *speaker*, *worth-y*, *lov-ed*. On the other hand, words like *heuchlerisch-est-er* (most hypocritical,) which afford an accumulation of a great many unaccented syllables, are contrary to the laws of eurythmy; we therefore term them *Spurious forms* (Afterformen).

Accentuation having assumed a very prominent station in German (§ 15, *Obs.*), it has come to be a principle of this language to avoid, in single words as well as in the compound expressions of notions or relations, such forms as are offensive to eurythmy, and, where they exist, to correct them. With this view, two unaccented syllables, or two unaccented words, are frequently contracted into one by means of dropping a vowel: e. g. lob-te, hand-eln, größ-ter, Vät-ern, instead of lob-e-te, hand-el-en, größ-eß-ter, Vät-er-en; and am Berge, hat er's gesagt? ist's genug? instead of, an dem Berge, hat er eß gesagt? ist eß genug? In the same way terminations of inflection are frequently dropped: e. g. dem Vater, mit Brod und Wein, alt Eisen, instead of dem Vat-er-e, mit Brod-e und mit Wein-e, alt-eß Eisen. This mode of dropping a vowel or a termination is applied especially to relational words, because they generally have only the subordinate accent.

The natural disposition of language to exhibit unity of notion, by the rhythmical unity of the expression, also leads to the contraction of whole combinations, consisting of two or more words, into one single word. This is chiefly effected by way of *Composition*: e. g. *steam-boat* (instead of boat driven by steam); and by way of *Ellipsis*, e. g. *the learned* (instead of, the learned men). In *composition*, the two factors of a combination are only contracted into one word, the factor referred to taking the shape and accent of a termination: in *ellipsis*, on the other hand, the factor referred to is entirely omitted. Both modes of reducing a combination to a rhythmical unity of expression, are more extensively employed in German than in the other modern languages; composition especially is very commonly resorted to (see § 53), and the frequent use of ellipsis has already been mentioned (§ 7 *).

Observation.—Compound expressions, like, *to make one's appearance, to make one's excuse or an apology, to make one's escape*, and, *at the same time, in order to, on account of*, are not conformable to the German idiom, which requires unity of notions and relations to be as far as possible represented by unity in the form of expression: all these phrases, therefore, are rendered in German by single words, as, *erscheinen, entschuldigen, entfliehen, and zugleich, um, wegen*.

* Grammatik, § 17.

§ 18.

The German language, together with the ancient Gothic, Norse, and Anglo-Saxon, constitute the family of the *Teutonic* (Germanische) languages; from which the Swedish, Danish, and Dutch languages also descend. The English, as far as it is derived from the Anglo-Saxon, is nearly related to the German: we shall find, accordingly, that a great many words, and a still greater variety of forms of derivation and inflection, as well as of syntactical forms, are common to both languages.

The popular language of the different German provinces affords many dialects, which differ more or less essentially one from another, but may all of them be comprehended in the general division of the *Upper-German* and *Low-German* dialects (*Oberdeutsche und Niederdeutsche Mundart*). The former of these is more rough and hard, the latter more soft and flowing; the Low-German also is more nearly related to the English idiom. At an early period, however, in consequence of the progress of civilization, a language was formed by a combination of the Upper- and Low-German dialects, which has become the language of the educated part of the nation, and is called the *High-German* language (*die Hochdeutsche Sprache*). This High-German language, which differs from the popular dialects of the different German provinces, has, since the time of the Reformation, been generally adopted as the only *written language* (*Schriftsprache*).

As the High-German language originates from a combination of the Upper- and Low-German dialects, it cannot adopt any words or forms of expression which do not exist in one of these dialects. Whether words or forms of expressions, existing in the dialects, be adopted in the High-German language, and therefore considered as good High-German, or not, depends entirely on the *practice* (*Sprachgebrauch*) of the educated part of the nation, which is the only authority referred to in this respect*.

§ 19.

The German nation has never been subject to any of those political changes, which have influenced the languages of the

* Grammatik, § 19, 20.

other modern nations, some of whom have adopted languages which are the result of a mixture of two or more different elements. Civilization, however, being in a great measure received from abroad, and a frequent intercourse being kept up with foreign nations, the German language has adopted many foreign words, particularly the names of foreign productions of nature and art, and terms employed in the sciences, arts, and literature, and those relative to the establishments of the church, the law, and government.

Many foreign words, on being received into the German language, have at the same time undergone some alterations in their form, in their accentuation, and even in their signification.

In point of *form*, the words adopted from the modern languages are to be distinguished from those taken from the Latin, and from the Greek through the medium of Latin. Words taken from modern languages commonly do not alter their form, and in that case they are in general pronounced in the same way, and for the most part have the same orthography, as in the languages from which they have been taken; e. g. *Genie*, *Chevalier*, *Diner*. In substantives of Latin or Greek origin, the terminations *a*, *e*, *es*, *os*, *us*, *um*, are commonly dropped, as in *Natur*, *Doktrin*, *Manual*, *Prälat*, *Advokat*, *Philosoph*, *Mandat*, *Statut*, *Adjectiv*. The Latin termination *is*, in masculine substantives, is also dropped, e. g. *Kardinal*, *Singular*; but in feminine substantives it is changed into *e*, e. g. *Klasse*, *Phrase*. The termination *ium* is dropped in some, as *Adverb*, *Exil*, and retained in others, as *Studium*, *Ministerium*.

Moreover, the following terminations are altered :

<i>ans</i>	into	ant,	e. g. Konsonant,
<i>ens</i>	—	ent,	— Student,
<i>antia</i>	—	anz,	— Toleranz,
<i>entia</i>	—	enz,	— Indolenz.
<i>itia</i>	—	iz,	— Justiz.
<i>tas</i>	—	tät,	— Humanität.
<i>io</i>	—	ion,	— Religion.
<i>ia</i>	—	ie or ei (ey)	— Philosophie, Polizei.
<i>ensis</i>	—	enser,	— Athenienser.

All foreign verbs, from whatever language they are taken, assume the termination *iren*, as *regiren*, *studiren*. There are, however, many foreign words which ~~have been~~ admitted into German at an early period, and which, by being constantly employed in popular language, have been entirely assimilated in their form to words originally German. Of this description are, *Körper* (*corpus*), *Vöbel* (*peuple*), *Pulver* (*pulvis*), *Fenster* (*fenestra*), *Abt* (*Abbas*), *Probst* (*præpositus*), and many others, which are pronounced and written like words originally German.

The Germans usually do not, like the English, assimilate the *accentuation* of foreign words to that of their own idiom, but leave them their original accentuation. Thus e. g. in Original, Kardinal, Majestät, Advokat, Problem, the principal accent is laid upon the last syllable; and in all foreign verbs, as *studiren*, *suriren*, it falls upon the penultimate.

In general, it is not correct to employ foreign words, if words originally German can be found which are equivalent to them, as *flattiren*, *refusiren*, instead of *schmeicheln*, *auslösagen*. Many foreign words, however, have been received, though words equivalent to them existed in German; but such words have commonly adopted a peculiar sense, different from their original signification, as well as from that of their equivalents in German. In this way, e. g. *Vöbel* (mob), *Prinz* (son, brother, or other relation of a reigning prince), *Offizier* (officer in the army), *Pulver* (gunpowder, or any artificial powder), *Puder* (powder for the hair), *Minister* (minister of a sovereign), *marſchiren* (to march, applied only to the army), *ſpaziren* (to take a walk), differ on the one hand from *peuple*, *prince*, *officier*, *pulvis*, *poudre*, *ministre*, *marcher*, *spatiari*, and on the other from *Volk*, *Häuf*, *Beamter*, *Staub*, *Diener*, *Gehen*.

§ 20.

Grammar teaches the value and signification of notional words, and of the signs of relation (§ 1); and the proper use of both, according to their respective signification.

According to this view, *Grammar* is divided into two parts, — *Etymology* and *Syntax*. *Etymology* treats of words by

themselves, of their classification, their formation, and the alteration of their forms by derivation and inflection. Syntax, on the other hand, treats of the union of words into sentences by means of the Predicative, Attributive, and Objective Combinations (§ 11, 12, 13,) in all their different forms.

PART I.

ETYMOLOGY.

SECTION I.—OF THE FORMATION OF WORDS.

CHAPTER I.—Of Articulate Sounds.

§ 21.

IN the study of Grammar, in order to arrive at the knowledge of the various transformations of words, we are obliged to decompose all Words into Sounds, which accordingly are to be considered as the elements of the words*. The sounds of speech are *articulate*, i. e. they are formed by the action of the Organs of Speech; by which term we understand the mouth, and particularly the moveable parts of the mouth, viz. the Palate, the Tongue, and the Lips. Articulate sounds are represented in writing by the letters of the Alphabet, which are nearly the same in German as in English. The letters of the German alphabet and their sounds are the following:—

A	a	a	sounds like <i>a</i> in <i>father</i> . § 23.
B	b	b	... as in English. §. 26.
C	c	c	... like <i>c</i> in <i>Cato</i> , like <i>ts</i> in <i>wits</i> . § 26.
D	d	d	... as in English. § 26.
E	e	e	... like <i>e</i> in <i>there</i> , <i>bed</i> . § 23.
F	f	f	... as in English.
G	g	g	... like <i>g</i> in <i>God</i> , <i>give</i> . § 26.
H	h	h	... as in English.
I	i	i	... like <i>i</i> in <i>bit</i> , <i>see</i> in <i>deer</i> . § 23.
J	j	j	... like <i>y</i> in <i>year</i> . or rather in <i>young</i> .
K	k	k	... as in English.
L	l	l	... ditto.
M	m	m	... ditto.

* Organism, § 12.

N	n	n	sounds as in English.
O	o	o	... like <i>o</i> in <i>rose</i> , <i>God</i> . § 23.
P	p	p	... as in English.
Q	q	q	... ditto.
R	r	r	... ditto.
S	s	s	... ditto. § 28. <i>or rather z.</i>
	ß	ss	... like <i>ss</i> in <i>less</i> .
T	t	t	... as in English.
U	u	u	... like <i>u</i> in <i>bull</i> , and <i>oo</i> in <i>book</i> . § 23.
V	v	v	... like <i>f</i> in <i>father</i> . <i>u in rude</i>
W	w	w	... like <i>v</i> in <i>vine</i> , <i>even</i> .
X	x	x	... like <i>x</i> in <i>wax</i> , <i>box</i> .
Y	y	y	... like <i>i</i> . § 23.
Z	z	z	... like <i>ts</i> in <i>wants</i> .

To these we must add the following letters, which also express simple sounds:—

ä	ä	sounds like <i>a</i> in <i>shame</i> . § 24.
ö	ö	... like the French <i>eu</i> in <i>fleur</i> . § 24.
ü	ü	... like the French <i>u</i> in <i>pur</i> , <i>chute</i> .
th	th	... almost like <i>t</i> . [the Greek].
ph	ph	... like <i>f</i> (occurs only in words derived from
ch	ch	... like the Scottish <i>ch</i> in <i>loch</i> .
sch	sch	... like <i>sh</i> in <i>shame</i> .

The names of the vowels are, as in English, those of the sounds which they express, except *ypsilon* for *y*. The names of consonants are also the same as in English, e. g. *be*, *pe*, *ka*, *ku*, for *b*, *p*, *f*, *q*; except *jod* for *j*, *ha* for *h*, *vau* for *v*, *we* for *w*, and *iks* for *x*.

§ 22.

Those articulate sounds, in the formation of which the action of the palate, tongue, and the lips is predominant, assume a distinct and specific character: they are called *Consonants*. Those sounds, on the contrary, which are formed rather by the voice passing through the cavity of the mouth more or less enlarged in different directions, than by the action of the palate, tongue, or lips, have a less distinct and specific character; they are called *Vowels*. The articulation of consonants is more perfect than that of vowels. *Mute Consonants* (Starre

Consonanten), considered as constituents of speech, are the most perfect sounds of all, each of them being the result of a distinct and peculiar action of its respective organ. The *Semi-consonants** are also sounds modified by the action of the palate, tongue, or lips, but less perfect than mute consonants. They are, as it were, intermediate sounds between vowels and mute consonants, since vowels, e. g. *i* and *u*, frequently pass into the semi-consonants *j* and *w*. Mute and semi-consonants belong each of them only to one of the organs, the palate, the tongue, or the lips. Each *Liquid Consonant*, on the contrary, rather results from the combined action of two organs; viz. *r* and *l* are formed by the palate and tongue, and *n* and *m* by the tongue and lips. This constitutes a material difference between the mute and semi-consonants on the one hand, and the liquid consonants on the other.

Articulate sounds are classed, first, according to the degree of more or less perfect articulation, into Vowels, Semi-consonants, Mute and Liquid Consonants; and, secondly, according to the organs by the action of which they are formed into Palatal, Lingual, and Labial sounds, (Rehllaute, Zungenlaute, und Lippenlaute).

§ 23.

Vowels.

The sounds of vowels are not in German, as in English, materially altered by their position: they generally remain the same in all situations.

A, e. g. in *Echam*, *Vater*, sounds as it does in *father*, but never as in *talk* or *shame*: *I*, e. g. in *Biß*, *dir*, sounds like *i* in *bit* or *ee* in *thee*, and never like *i* in *bite* or in *shirt*: *U*, e. g. in *Buch*, *Fuß*, sounds like *u* in *rude*, *bull*, or *oo* in *book*, but never like *u* in *but*, *use*, or *busy*: *O*, as in *Rose*, *Gott*, sounds like *o* in *rose*, *most*, but not as in *on*, *do*, *move*.

There is some variety in the pronunciation of *ε*, depending upon the primary vowel from which it depends†. If *ε* origi-

* They are in some Grammars improperly named *Semivowels*. German Grammarians term them *Spiranten*. See *Organism*, § 16. *Grammatik*, § 29.

† The vowels *ε* and *ο* are Secondary vowels, *i*, *a*, and *u* being the three Primary vowels, corresponding to the three organs, palate, tongue, and lips; *ο* always originates from *a* or *u*; *ε* from *i* or *a*. Upon the difference of primary and secondary sounds, see *Grammatik*, § 25, 26, 27.

nates from *i*, it has an acute sound like the French *é fermé*; e. g. in the first syllables of *leben*, *geben*, *brechen*, *stehlen*, *lesen*, (to live, give, break, steal, read,) which were in old German, *liban*, *giban*, *brifan*, &c.; it has the same sound in the prefix *be*, and in the augment *ge*, e. g. in *beweinen*, *gelobt*. If, on the other hand, *e* originates from *a*, it has a broad and open sound, like the English *a* in *name*, *fate*, e. g. in *leßt*, *fern* (last, far). *Herz*, *Schmerz*, *Herr*, in the first syllable of *Erde*, *Ernte*, and in the termination of the infinitive, as *geben*, *leben* (originally *giban*, *liban*). When *e* stands as an unaccented termination, as in *Rose*, *Liebe*, *Knabe*, it is always pronounced, and not mute as in the English words *fate*, *spite*, *sense*.

y sounds like *i*, except in words of Greek origin, in which it has the sound of the French *u*, e. g. *Physik*, *Symptom*. It never has the power of a consonant, as in the English *year*, *young*. Its use in words originally German is rather antiquated.

§ 24.

The letters *ä*, *ö*, *ü* are termed *modified sounds* (*Umlaute*), because they are modifications of the vowels *a*, *e*, *u*. When a primary derivative word (§ 2) which has one of these vowels, assumes, either by way of derivation, or in inflection, a termination containing the vowel *i* or *e*; the vowels *a*, *e*, and *u* are commonly modified or softened, as *Last* *läst*ig, *Land* *Länd*er, *Horn* *Hörn*chen, *Sohn* *Söhn*e, *Burg* *Bürg*er, *Hut* *Hüt*e. The modified vowel has been retained in many words, although the termination *e* has been dropped, as *Thür* (*Thüre*), *Glück* (*Gelücke*), *Gefühl*. In a few instances, however, vowels have assumed the sounds of *ä*, *ö*, *ü*, in a way independent of terminations; e. g. in the radical verbs *gähren*, *rähen*, *löschen*, *lügen*, *trügen*, in which *ä*, *ö*, *ü* originate from *i*.

The sound of the modified vowel *ä* (*schämen*, *käme*, *hätte*) is like that of *a* in *shame*, *came*, and differs very little from that of the broad and open *e* (§ 23), which frequently has come in place of *ä*, e. g. in *leßt* (latest), *besser* (from *baß*), *Gesetz* (from *Saß*). The sound of *ö* (*hören*, *schön*) is the same with that of the French *eu* in *fleur*, *jeune*. The sound of *ü* (*Hüten*, *Hütte*) is that of the French *u* in *flute*, *lutte*.

When the sounds of two vowels are combined into one sound, both of them being however still heard, such compound sound is called a *Diphthong*. There are in German the following Diphthongs:—ai, e. g. in *Hain*, *Waise*; au, which is also modified into *äu*, e. g. in *Haus* *Häuser*, *Maus* *Mäuse*; ei (ey) in *Zeit*, *mein*, *sein* (*seyn*); and eu, e. g. in *neu*, *treu*. The sound of ei is the same with that of *i* in *mine*, *spite*; that of eu corresponds with that of *oy* in *joy*; the sound of ai is expressed in the English affirmation *aye*; and that of au is the same with *ou* in *house*, *sound*. *äu* is like

§ 25.

Vowels are either *short*, as in *Fall*, *Fälle*, *Fell*, *still*, *voll*, *völlig*, *Butter*, *Hütte*; or *long*, as in *fam*, *fäme*, *ewig*, *dir*, *roth*, *Röthe*, *Blut*, *Blüthe*. Diphthongs are always long. Short vowels always harden and sharpen the consonant which follows, and if it is a liquid, they frequently produce that change of the consonant which may be called an *augmentation* of the final consonant (see § 29). The sharpness of the consonant, produced by shortening the preceding vowel, is marked in writing by doubling the consonant. In this way vowels are generally known to be short by the consonant, following being either doubled, as in *Fall*, *Kinn*, *Gott*, or augmented, as in *Feld*, *Kind*, *Korb*, *hart*. We must, however, consider as exceptions from this rule, the words *Herd*, *Bart*, *Pferd*, *Wend*, and some others, in which a long vowel stands before an augmented final consonant, as well as the monosyllabic terminations of derivation or of inflection, and monosyllabic relational words (§ 1), which, having a subordinate accentuation (§ 16), neither sharpen nor double their final consonant, although standing after a short vowel, as *Birg-er*, *gold-en*, *lob-et*, and *bin*, *hat*, *an*, *von*, *mit*, *ob*, *hin*. The consonant is doubled, however, in the relational words *fam*, *will*, *sell*, *wenn*, *wann*, *denn*, *dam*.

Long vowels do not in any manner affect the consonant following; they may in general be distinguished by the consonant following being neither doubled nor augmented, as in *Brod*, *Lob*, *gab*, *Blut*, *schön*, *gut*, *fam*. Vowels, however, are often distinguished as long by particular *signs of length* (*Dehn-*

ungszeichen), i. e. letters which are not pronounced, but only mark the length of the vowel to which they are joined. They are:—

1. The reduplication of the vowels for *a*, *e*, and *o*, as in *Mal*, *Saat*, *leer*, *See*, *Meer*, *Moos*;

2. The letter *e* for the vowel *i*, as in *hier*, *Bier*, *lieb*, *Trieb*, *Stiel*, *Biene*;

3. The letter *h* for all vowels, as in *Jahr*, *Hahn*, *nähren*, *wählen*, *mehr*, *sehr*, *Sohn*, *Oh*, *Kohle*, *Köhler*, *Köhre*, *Huhn*, *Stuhl*, *Hühner*, *Stühle*;—to the vowel *i*, however, this sign of length is applied only in the pronouns *ihm*, *ihn*, *ihnen*, *ihr*, *ihrer*.

Observation.—The augment of final consonants (e. g. in *halb*, *fert*, *Welt*, *Burg*) must be distinguished from some consonants, especially *t*, *d*, which are joined to final consonants as terminations of derivation or inflection, as in *Gefurt*, *Fahrt*, *Magd*, *Gemäl-de*, *leb-t*, *leb-te*, *gewohn-t*, and in which the vowels are long. By the *final consonant* (*Auslaut*) of words, we generally, and unless the contrary be explicitly stated, mean the last consonant of roots or primary derivatives, and not that of the termination, which the word may have assumed in consequence of derivation or of inflection.

§ 26.

Consonants.

By Mute Consonants we understand the Palatal *g*, *k*, *ch*; the Lingual *d*, *t*, *th*; and the Labial *b*, *p*, *f* (*v*). We distinguish them moreover into Tenuis *k*, *t*, *p*, Mediæ *g*, *d*, *b*, and Aspiratæ *ch*, *th*, *f* (*v*). The hissing sounds *ʃ* (*ß*) and *ʒ* are secondary sounds to the tenuis *t*. The tenuis *k*, *t*, *p*, and the aspirate *f* have the same sounds in German as in English. The sound of *v*, which is employed only as an initial letter, does not differ from that of *f*. Instead of the tenuis *p* of the English and Low-German idioms (*path*, *pipe*, *pound*), the Upper-German dialect frequently employs an aspirate *pf* (*Pfad*, *Pfeife*, *Pfund*), which has been adopted in the High-German language.

The sound of the aspirate *th* is different from that of the English *th*; it scarcely differs from that of *t*; as in *Ther*, *roth*, *Noth*. There is in English no sound similar to that of the aspirate *ch*, but it entirely corresponds with that of the

Scottish and Irish *ch* and *gh* in *loch* or *lough* (lake), *laigh* (low). When, in words of Greek origin, *ch* stands as initial before *a*, *e*, *u*, or before a consonant, as in *Cher*, *Christ*, *Chronis*, it is sounded like *f*. It has, however, retained its natural sound in *Chas*. In words originally German, *ch* is sounded like *f* only when it stands before *ſ* (*š*), as in *Wachſ*, *wachſen*, *Ochſ*, *Ochſen* (like *wax*, *oxen*); provided that the *ſ* does not belong to a termination, or to another part of a compound, as in *wachſam*, *Nachſucht*, *nachſehen*, *Buch-ſ* (*Bucheſ*).

The mediæ *d* and *b* in general have the same sounds as in English, as in *dein*, *Dorn*, *Faden*, *Bein*, *Berg*, *Liebe*, *geben*; *g* is pronounced like the English *g* in *give*, *God*, *good*, but never like that letter in *genius*, *gesture*.

The three mediæ *d*, *b*, *g*, when employed as final sounds, and not followed by any vowel, are considerably hardened, so as to approach to the corresponding tenues: in *Herb*, *Leib*, the media is nearly pronounced as in *heart*, *bite*; in *Loß*, *Ließ*, as in *hope*, *leap*: the same change takes place in the pronunciation of the final *g*: the Lower-Saxon dialect even aspirates its sound, so as to make it similar to that of *ch*. After the liquid *n*, however, the *g* is never hardened, but always pronounced as in the English words *thing*, *sing*, *singer* (not as in *linger*): thus, *Ding*, *Gefang*, *Sänger*.

The hissing sounds *ß* and *z*, being modifications of the tenuis *t*, are commonly employed in German words where *t* occurs in the corresponding English words; e.g. *Fuß*, foot; *groß*, great; *beißen*, bite; *ſchießen*, shoot; *zu*, to; *zähm*, tame; *zoll*, toll; *Kaße*, cat. When the *ß*, which never is initial, stands after a long vowel, as in *weiß*, *Maß*, *stoßen*, it sounds like *c* in *mice*, *truce*; after a short vowel, as in *Hiß*, *Ruß*, *Koß*, it is pronounced like *ss* in *kiss*, *loss*, *less*. The sound of *z*, e.g. in *Schürze*, *Wiß*, is like that of *ts* in *shirts*, *wits*. *ç* is pronounced exactly like *z* before *e*, *i*, *ä*, and *ü*, *ei*, *eu*, *äu*, and like *f* before *a*, *o*, *u*, and *au*: it does not occur in words originally German, except in the formation of *ch* and *ç*.

Œ occurs only in foreign words, and in the German words *Art*, *Here*, *Nixe*. Its sound is a compound of *f* and *ſ*, and it is never pronounced soft as is done when it stands as an initial in English.

Observation.—There are fixed laws in the change of mute consonants, by which German words differ from corresponding words in English (§ 18), as appears from the following comparison:—

IN ENGLISH.	IN GERMAN.
k <i>final.</i> break, sake, seek, oak, awake.	ch. brechen, Sache, suchen, Eiche, wa- chen.
t <i>initial.</i> to, ten, tear, toe.	z. zu, zehn, Zähre, Zehe.
— <i>final.</i> bite, white, smite, shoot.	ß. heißen, weiß, schmeißen, schießen.
— — sit, wit, cat, short.	z. sitzen, Wis, Raze, kurz.
p <i>initial.</i> pound, path, pole, pool.	pf. Pfund, Pfad, Pfahl, Pfuhl.
— <i>final.</i> sleep, deep, hope, ape.	f. schlafen, tief, hoffen, Affe.
d <i>initial.</i> dove, drink, drive, deaf.	t. Taube, trinken, treiben, taub.
— — do, deal, door, dear.	th. thun, Theil, Thür, theuer.
— <i>final.</i> loud, bride, blood, ride.	t. laut, Braut, Blut, reiten.
ch <i>initial.</i> choose, cherry, chew.	f. kiesen, Kirsche, kauen.
— <i>final.</i> breach, reach, rich.	ch. Bruch, reichen, reich.
th <i>initial.</i> think, thorn, thief, though.	d. denken, Dorn, Dieb, Dach.
— <i>final.</i> father, mother, weather.	t. Vater, Mutter, Wetter.
— — brother, fathom, feather.	d. Bruder, Faden, Feder.
f <i>initial.</i> four, full, fowl, father.	v. vier, voll, Vogel, Vater.
— <i>final.</i> deaf, life, wife, staff, loaf.	b. taub, leben, Weib, Stab, Laib.
gh <i>final.</i> laugh, high, light, right.	ch. lachen, hoch, Licht, Recht.
v <i>final.</i> have, shave, love, dove.	b. haben, schaben, lieben, Taube.

§ 27.

Mute consonants, standing after short vowels, are generally hardened; and this hardness is expressed in writing by doubling the letter: as in bitten, statt, schlaff, Widder, which differ from bieten, Staat, Schlaf, wieder. However, we always write *ck* instead of *ff*, *ß* instead of *zz*, and *ff* instead of *ßß*; e. g. Rock, Stock, Fuß, Raze, Bisse, Mißen, Misse: *ß*, if not followed by a vowel (an anomaly of orthography), is not doubled at all; e. g. Biß, Ruß, Nuß, Mißchen. The aspirate *ch* is never doubled (after short vowels); e. g. Sache, flach, Stich.

When a long vowel, standing before a media, is shortened by derivation or inflection, the media is frequently changed into a tenuis; as in fliegen, flüch, leiden, litt, siedern, sott. When, at the same time, the tenuis *t* is added to the media as a termination, the media is commonly changed into the corresponding aspirate; as in Schlacht, Bucht, Nacht, mochte, from schlagen, biegen, mögen; and Gift, Schrift, Trist, from geben, schreiben, treiben. In the same way the semi-consonant *h* is

frequently changed into the aspirate mute *ch*; as in *Flucht*, *Sicht*, *Geschichte*, from *fliehen*, *sehen*, *geschehen*.

§ 28.

The semi-consonants *h*, *j*, *f*, are the same with their corresponding semi-consonants in English; that is to say, *h* in *haben*, *Hand*, with *h* in *have*, *hand*; *j* in *Jahr*, *jung*, *joch*, with *y* in *year*, *young*, *yoke*. The sound of *f* between two vowels (*Mase*, *Rose*) is the same as that of the English *s* in *nose*, *rose*. The pronunciation of the initial *f* (*Sohn*, *Seele*) is also soft; almost as much as that of the English *z* in *zone*, *zeal*. In the Upper-German dialect, however, this initial *f* sounds very nearly as hard as in English. The sound of the final *z*, which is always written *z*, is less soft, and differs little from that of *ß*; as in *Maus*, *Eis*, *Gras*, *Glas*, like *mouse*, *ice*, *grass*, *glass*.

The compound character of *sch* denotes that modification of the semi-consonant *f* which is in English expressed by *sh*; as in *Scham*, *scheinen*, *scheu*, *rasch*, *Fleisch*, like *shame*, *shine*, *shy*, *rash*, *flesh*. Before initial liquid sounds, and before the initial *w*, it stands in the room of the English *s*, but is also sounded like *sh*; as in *schmal*, *Schnecke*, *schlafen*, *schwimmen* (small, snake, sleep, swim). The sound of the semi-consonant *w*, e. g. in *Wein*, *Werf*, *Wink*, *Wunder*, is not that of the English *w*, but agrees exactly with that of *v* in *vine*, *vice*.

Observation.—Semi-consonants are far more mutable than other consonants. They are frequently exchanged one for another, as in *ὑπερ*, *ἀλς*, *ἰξ*, compared with *super*, *sal*, *sex*; or changed into mute consonants, as in *live*, *give*, *strive*, *sehen*, *few* (iude), compared with *life*, *gift*, *streken*, *Sicht*, and (in the Norse language) *Gydingr*. The same words frequently have semi-consonants in one language, and are without them in another; as in *yoke*, *year*, *word*, *wonder*, *Bucher*, *habere*, compared with the Norse *ok*, *ar*, *ord*, *under*, *okr*, and with *avoir*; and *earth*, *earl*, *melt*, compared with the Norse *Jörd*, *Jarl*, and with *schmelzen*.

§ 29.

The liquid consonants *r*, *l*, *n*, *m*, have the same sounds as in English. After a short vowel, their sounds become harder; and in written language they are doubled; as in *Narr*, *Fall*, *Mann*, *Stamm*.

It is peculiar to liquid sounds to combine with other con-

sonants, so as to form, as it were, only one sound. Their sounds being naturally softer and weaker than those of mute consonants, we find that in all languages there is a particular disposition to *augment* them, i. e. to make their sounds stronger by combining them with that of another consonant. If this modification is applied to initial liquid sounds, we term it *Initial Augmentation* (Verstärkung des Anlautes); whilst, if applied to final ones, we call it *Final Augmentation* (Verstärkung des Auslautes). The consonant itself, thus combined with a liquid, may be called the *Augment*, either *initial* or *final*. The initial augment, placed at the beginning of the word, *stands before* its corresponding liquid; the final augment, on the contrary, joined to the end of the word, *follows* the liquid with which it is combined.

On comparing the different ancient and modern languages, it appears that initial augmentation is primitively effected by semi-consonants; as in the Anglo-Saxon hlutan, to lean; hladen, to load; hleapan, to leap; hring, ring; ppæc (Nähe): and in the English wring (ringen); sneeze, (nießen); snow (Lat. *nix*). As, however, semi-consonants are easily changed into mute consonants (§ 28. *Observation*), these sounds also are now frequently met with as initial augments; as in fragen (*rogo*); gleiten, to slide; brechen, flagen: and it may safely be affirmed, that almost all mute consonants and semi-consonants standing before an initial liquid sound are of this description. The semi-consonant *f* may, like a liquid one, be easily combined with mute sounds: it is found accordingly as an initial augment even before mute consonants; as in starve (darben); ftumm (dumb); in the Latin stannum (tin); and the Italian scorza (Lat. *cortex*), stivali, Germ. Stiefel (Lat. *tibialia*). The initial augment is often enlarged into a syllable; as in the French esprit (spirit), espion (spy). In the same way, in German, the initial augment frequently appears in the form of the syllable *ge*; as in Gesang, song; Gesund, sound; Gewinnen, to win; which, like other initial augments, does not by itself modify the signification of words, but is now employed in particular instances as a sign of derivation as well as of inflection; as in Gebirge, Gestirn, geliebet, gebunden. When, in German grammar the term *Augment* is made use of, it

generally applies in a particular manner to this syllabical augment *ge*.

The final augment also is very mutable, as appears from comparing *dumb*, *lamb*, *salt*, *marrow*, *sorrow*, with *dumm*, *lamm*, the Latin *sal*, and *Marf*, *Serge*. In German the final augment is always a mute consonant, and commonly stands after a liquid consonant following a short vowel; as in *hart*, *hald*, *Vand*, *Hand*, *farg*, *stark*, *Korb*, *Hanf*. In a few words, however, *t* stands as a final augment after an aspirate consonant; as in *recht*, *schlecht*, *oft*, *Ost*.

Observation.—An acquaintance with these laws of initial and final augmentation is necessary, not only in order to understand the etymological affinity of words, but also in order to arrive at a distinct knowledge of the different forms of derivation and inflection.

§ 30.

Euphony (*Wohl laut*) results from a just proportion of the different kinds of sounds, consonants and vowels, mute and liquid consonants, &c. in the words of a language. Words in which sounds of the same description, e. g. vowels, or liquids, or mute consonants, are accumulated, do not sound well,—they are not *euphonic*. In general, it may be said that all words, when first formed, are euphonic; but the modern German language is less euphonic than the ancient, because euphony has been in a great measure sacrificed to *eurythmy* (§ 17), or the just proportion of accented and unaccented syllables. We have seen, that in order to produce eurythmy, two or more syllables and even words are contracted into one. By such contractions, sounds of the same kind are frequently brought together, and euphony is impaired or destroyed: thus *Vidclare* has been converted into *Fiedler*, fiddler; *Andarraurthi* into *Antwort*, answer; and we say *liebte* (*liebete*), *spricht* (*spricht*). Moreover, euphony often suffers by terminations of derivation and inflection, as well as by the composition of words; the final sound of a stem, or of one component, not forming a euphonic combination with the initial sound of a termination, or of another component; e. g. *achtbar*, *danfbar*, *Trägheit*, *Hechtstöpf*, *Siebbein*. This inconvenience, however, is frequently corrected, partly by throwing out sounds, partly by

introducing new sounds. Thus when two vowels stand together, as in *thuen*, *ruhet*, *siehet*, *freuet*, the vowel of the termination is omitted; as in *thun*, *ruht*, *sieht*, *freut*. When two mute consonants meet, a liquid or the semi-consonant *z* is commonly inserted between them; as in *Heid-el-beere*, *Birf-en-baum*, *Hochzeit-z-tag*, instead of *Heidbeere*, *Birfbaum*, *Hochzeittag*: and if two liquid sounds, or a liquid and a semi-consonant, stand together, the mute *t* is inserted frequently; as in *eigen-t-lich*, *namen-t-lich*, *wesen-t-lich*, *wöchen-t-lich*, *mein-et-wegen*, *dein-et-halben*. The signs *el*, *en*, *z*, *t*, *et*, inserted in this way, are termed *Euphonic Signs*. The contractions of the terminations of inflection *et* and *ez*, which frequently take place for the sake of eurythmy, as in *lacht*, *denft*, *gibt*, *geliebt*, *Vorzugz*, *Aufangz*, is in general not admissible when the final sound of the stem is a lingual sound; as in *leid-et*, *reit-et*, *find-et*, *gebad-et*, *Bad-ez*, *Fuß-ez*, *Graß-ez*.

Observation.—The well-educated part of the German nation, although they do not speak the popular dialect, but the High-German language (§ 18), still retain the general character of the pronunciation peculiar to the province which they inhabit. And as in the absence of a common capital town, or of authority such as is derived from an academy, no one province is entitled to legislate for the others, the pronunciation of some German letters and words still remains open for discussion. Of this description are the initial *f*, which in the South of Germany is pronounced as in English, whilst in the North its sound approaches to that of the English *z*; and the final *g*, which by some is pronounced not unlike *ch*, by others like *f*.

Foreigners ought carefully to avoid, however, such pronunciations as are generally admitted to be improper. Such are, the pronunciation of the initial *g* like *j* or the English *y* (Prussia), or like *ch* (Westphalia); that of *sch* like two separate sounds, *f:ch* (Westphalia); that of the initial *t* and *d*, like *p* and *t*; of *ii*, like *i*; *eu*, like *ei*; *ö*, like *e*; and of *sp* and *st*, like *sph* and *stt*; all of which are very commonly met with in the South of Germany.

CHAPTER II.—Of Roots and Primary Derivatives.

§ 31.

Roots.

IN German, as in other Teutonic languages (§ 18), those verbs which now have, or formerly had, the *ancient* form of conjugation, i. e. that form of conjugation in which the radical vowel is changed,—as *binden*, to bind, Imp. *band*, Part. *gebunden*; *trinken*, to drink, Imp. *trank*, Part. *getrunken*; *brechen*, to break, Imp. *brach*, Part. *gebrochen*,—are *Radical verbs*; and they are to be regarded as the *roots* from which all other notional words are derived (§ 2). Those radical verbs, which in a later period have assumed the *modern* form, i. e. that form of conjugation in which the vowel is not changed,—as *decken*, to cover, Imp. *deckte*, Part. *gedeckt*; *lauten*, to sound, Imp. *lautete*, Part. *gelaute*,—are known to be roots by the primary derivatives formed from them; as, *Dach*, roof; *Lied*, song.

The signification of radical verbs is generally less definite than that of derivative verbs. It appears that they were all primitively intransitive, and the most part of them still are intransitive. But many of them, as *fahren*, *treiben*, *schießen*, *schmelzen*, *biegen*, *brechen*, in the same way as the English *to move*, *to drive*, *to shoot*, *to melt*, *to bend*, *to break*, are now used both intransitively and transitively. In some of them, as *riechen*, *schmecken*, in the same way as in *to smell*, *to taste*, even active and passive signification is not distinguished.

Observation.—By the term *Root* we understand, not the *inflected* radical verb, as, *binden*, *brechen*, but the word without any termination, as *bind*, *brech*.

§ 32.

Primary Derivatives (*Stämme*) are formed from radical verbs, by a *change of the radical vowel* (*Ablaut*), similar to that by which the imperfect tense and the past participle of the same verbs are made. Thus *Band*, band; *Bund*, bond;

Sprache, speech; *Spruch*, sentence; are derived from the verbs *binden* (band, gebunden), *sprechen* (sprach, gesprochen). The vowels of primary derivatives are, for the most part, the same with those of the imperfect tense or past participle of the radical verbs. This law, however, is not universal, vowels being the most mutable of all sounds (§ 23). In many primary derivatives, as *Schein*, shine; *Preis*, praise; *gleich*, like; *bleich*, pale; from *scheinen*, *preisen*, *gleichen*, *bleichen*,—and especially in most of those formed from verbs in which the radical vowel *a* is not changed in the participle, as *Fall*, fall; *halt*, hold; *Fang*, fang; *Schlag*, blow; from *fallen*, *halten*, *fangen*, *schlagen*,—the vowel does not differ from that of the radical verb. All primary derivatives are either substantives or adjectives: and of primary substantives there are two forms,—the *Ancient form* (*Ablautsform*), and the *Middle form* (*Mittelform*).

All substantives and adjectives being derived from verbs, we find in all substantives and adjectives the notion of a verb modified in one way or another by derivation (§ 2). Many of them have retained so entirely the notion of the verbs from which they are made, as still to admit of an objective relation, and to govern cases and prepositions. We say, e. g. *Furcht vor dem Tode*, fear of death; *Durst nach Wahrheit*, thirst for truth; *Gedanke an den Tod*, thought of death; *eingedenk der Warnung*, remembering the warning; *tauglich zu einem Stande*, fit for a profession; because we say, *vor Etwas fürchten*, *nach Etwas dursten*, *an Etwas denken*, *einer Sache gedenken*, *zu Etwas taugen*. (See § 174.) Substantives and adjectives of this description are termed *Verbal Substantives* and *Verbal Adjectives*.

§ 33.

Primary Substantives.

The Primary Substantives of the *ancient* form are produced by merely changing the radical vowel of the verb, and they commonly have no termination; e. g. *Flug*, flight; *Schlag*, blow; *Zug*, march; *Spruch*, sentence; *Schnitt*, cut; *Trunk*, drinking; *Trank*, drink. Some of them, however, have assumed one of the terminations *er*, *el*, *en*; as, *Messer*, knife; *Wetter*, weather; *Kummer*, sorrow; *Schenkel*, leg; *Gipfel*, top;

Bissen, bit; Garten, garden *. Many substantives of this form have also assumed the augment *ge* (§ 29); e. g. Gesang, song; Gebot, command; Gesetz, law; Geschmack, taste; Geruch, smell: or have retained the augment of the radical verb; e. g. Gewinn, gain; Genuß, enjoyment; from gewinnen, genießen.

The signification of substantives belonging to this form is, in general, more indefinite than that of secondary derivatives. They imply, first, the concrete notion of an active subject; e. g. Band, tie; Schmuck, ornament; Fluß, river; Dach, roof; Schloß, lock; Hut, hat; viz. that which *binds, adorns, flows, covers*, &c.:—or, secondly, the concrete notion of that which is done or made; e. g. Bünd, bundle; Trank, drink; Spruch, sentence; Grab, grave; Werk, work; viz. that which *is bound, drunk, spoken*, &c.:—or, thirdly, the abstract notion of an action; e. g. Schluß, close; Trunk, drinking; Lauf, course; Fall, fall; Ritt, ride; Flug, flight. Some of them are employed either in both of the concrete significations, or in the abstract and in one of the concrete significations, or in all the three; e. g. Fang, fangs, catch, and catching; Bruch, breaking and crack; Schuß, shoot (of a tree), charge of gun-powder, and shooting; Brand, brand, and burning.

§ 34.

In primary substantives of the *middle* form the radical vowel of the verb is also changed, but they have at the same time one of the terminations *t, d (te, de), st* or *e*. The terminations *t, d, st*, stand for the most part after a final vowel or liquid consonant, and *e* after a final mute consonant; e. g. in Saat, seed; That, deed; Glut, glow; Baute, building; Fahrt, ride; Bürde, burden; Kunde, knowledge; Zierde, ornament; Gunst, favour; Bitte, request; Sprache, language; Laute, lute; Wache, watch; Scheide, sheath. When *t* stands after *g* or *h*, following a short vowel, these mediæ are changed into the corresponding aspirate sounds; e. g. in Schlacht, Flucht, Sicht, Bucht, and Gift, Schrift, Gruft (§ 27). In some substantives of this form, the

* These terminations, *er, el, en*, differ from affixes of secondary derivatives (§ 36) in having no influence on the signification of the words to which they are added, and which are therefore, although apparently exceptions, classed with primary derivatives.—See Organ. § 36. Gramm. § 35.

termination *e*, which belonged to them at an earlier period of the language, has been dropped; e. g. in *Schur*, shearing; *Schar*, ploughshare; *Wahl*, choice; *Scham*, shame; *Hut*, guard. Of the substantives of the middle form, only the following have the augment *ge* (§ 29): viz. *Gebärde*, gesture; *Gebühr*, duty; *Geburt*, birth; *Geduld*, patience; *Gefahr*, danger; *Geschichte*, history; *Geschwulst*, tumour; *Gestalt*, shape; *Gewalt*, force; *Gewähr*, security.

Primary substantives of the middle form, in the same way as those of the ancient (§ 33), imply 1st, the concrete notions of an active subject, as *Schlange*, snake; *Schelle*, bell; *Mühle*, mill: or, 2dly, of that which is done or made; as, *Bucht*, bay; *Gabe*, gift; *Schrift*, writ; *Grube*, pit: or, 3dly, the abstract notion of an action; as, *That*, deed; *Flucht*, flight; *Reue*, repentance; *Brunst*, burning; *Kunst*, art.

Observation.—The substantives *Zierat*, ornament; *Heimat*, home; *Heirat*, marriage; *Armut*, poverty; and *Kleinod*, a precious thing, jewel,—in which *at*, *ut*, *od*, stand instead of *t*, are also to be regarded as belonging to the middle form.

Primary Adjectives.

§ 35.

Primary Adjectives are generally formed from roots in the same way as the primary substantives of the ancient form (§ 33); e. g. *schlank*, slender; *flüch*, fledged; *schön*, beautiful; *dicke*, thick; *wach*, awake: *laut*, loud; *gleich*, like; from *schlingen*, *fliegen*, *scheinen*, *deihen*, *wachen*, *lauten*, *gleichen*. Some of them have also, like primary substantives, assumed the terminations *er*, *el*, *en* (§ 33); e. g. *bitter*, bitter; *eitel*, vain; *eben*, even: whilst others have taken the termination *e* or *t*; e. g. *streng*, severe; *schlicht*, plain; *recht*, right; *sanft*, soft.—Primary adjectives alone are employed as adjective-substantives (§ 7); e. g. *Bothe*, messenger; *Knabe*, boy; *Erbe*, heir; *Gehülfe*, assistant; *Recht*, law; *Uebel*, evil; *Weiß*, *Roth*, the white or red colour. Only *Mensch* (*Männlich*), man, and *Fürst* (*Vorderste*, first), prince, are employed in the same way, though they must be considered as secondary adjectives.

CHAPTER III.—Of Secondary Derivatives.

§ 36.

SECONDARY Derivatives are generally formed from primary derivatives by means of *affixes*, i. e. terminations of derivation; e. g. *Schloss-er*, locksmith; *mächt-ig*, mighty; *Bind-niß*, alliance; from *Schloß*, *Macht*, *Bund*. Those which are immediately formed from radical verbs, e. g. *Sprech-er*, speaker; *Kenn-er*, connoisseur; *Sitz-ung*, session; *denk-bar*, conceivable; are less frequent in German than in English, and seem to be of recent introduction. Affixes are either primitively signs of derivation, e. g. *e*, *en*, *er*, *ig*, *icht*, *isch*, *in*, *niß*, *lich*, *ling*, *lein*, *chen*, *sal*, *sel*, *heit*; or they are originally notional words, which, like the English *full* and *like*, in *lawful*, *warlike*, have assumed the signification of affixes; e. g. *schaft*, *thum*, *lei*, *haft*, *bar*, *sant*. In secondary derivatives, formed by the affixes *e*, *er*, *ig*, *isch*, *in*, *niß*, *lich*, *ling*, *lein* (*el*), *chen*, *sel*, the vowel of the primary derivative, if *a*, *o*, or *u*, is commonly modified (§ 24); e. g. in *Güte*, goodness; *Bürger*, citizen; *mächtig*, mighty; *zänktisch*, quarrelsome; from *gut*, *Burg*, *Macht*, *Zank*. Upon the whole, it is not conformable to the German idiom, to employ a secondary derivative in order to form a new derivative by means of another affix. Some words, however, are formed in this way; e. g. *Geschick-lich-keit*, ability; *Würd-ig-keit*, dignity; *Bestand-ig-keit*, constancy; *Gemäch-lich-keit*, conveniency: their notions differ only by nice shades of signification from those of the primary derivatives, *Geschick*, *Würde*, *Bestand*, *Gemach*. They are spurious forms of derivatives (§ 17), and also of recent introduction.

As in secondary derivatives the notions of the primary derivatives are modified by the relations expressed by the affixes, they become more definite, and therefore less comprehensive, than the notions of roots and of primary derivatives.

Observation.—In general it may be said, that in secondary derivatives the vowel is only *modified*, whilst in primary derivatives it is *changed* (§ 33). In some primary derivatives, however, which either still have, or formerly

had, the termination *e*, the vowel is modified: such are the substantives *Bürde*, *Lüge*, *Sünde*, *Stäte*, *Küje*, *Mühle*, *Thür*, *Willführ*, and the adjectives *flücht*, *kühn*, *kühl*, *spät*.

1. *Derivative Verbs.*

§ 37.

Derivative Verbs are formed from primary, and in some instances also from secondary derivatives; e. g. *tränken*, to give drink; *fällen*, to fell; *drängen*, to press; *schlachten*, to slaughter; *stärken*, to strengthen; *schwächen*, to weaken; *würdigen*, to deign; *heiligen*, to consecrate; derived from the substantives *Trank*, *Fall*, *Drang*, *Schlacht*, and from the adjectives *stark*, *schwach*, *würdig*, *heilig*, which assume the conjugation and signification of verbs. When primary derivatives are thus made into verbs, their vowel is commonly modified, except in a few intransitive verbs of this description; e. g. *prangen*, to sparkle; *prunken*, to boast; *duften*, to spread fragrance; *dursten*, to thirst; *geissen*, to covet; *erlahmen*, *erfalten*, *erstarken*, to become lame, cold, strong; and some others. The most part of derivative verbs are transitive, and of the description of factitive verbs (§ 5). Some of them, however, like the adjectives used substantively, express in one word, and by way of ellipsis, a whole objective combination (§ 17); e. g. *schiffen*, to sail; *pflügen*, to plough; *peitschen*, to whip; *keltern*, to press grapes; *hämmern*, to hammer; *würfeln*, to play with dice; *fischen*, to fish; *grasen*, to graze; *buttern*, to make butter. In this way, the manner or mode of an action is pointed out, e. g. in *flügeln*, *wiseln*, to play a prudent, a witty part; *frömmeln*, to affect devotion; *jüdeln*, to deal Jewishly; *näseln*, to speak through the nose.

2. *Substantives.*

a. Concrete Substantives.

§ 38.

er Names of persons are formed from names of things by the affix *er* (Engl. *er*); e. g. *Bürger*, burgher; *Tänzer*, dancer; *Schäfer*, shepherd; *Ritter*, knight; *Sänger*, singer; *Schnitter*, reaper; *Wohlthäter*, benefactor; from *Burg*, *Tanz*, *Schaf*, *Ritt*, *Sang*, *Schnitt*, *Wohlthat*. From names of countries and

places, as Schweiz, Irland, Rom, London, substantives are formed in the same way; e. g. Schweizer, Swiss; Irländer, Irishman; Römer, Roman; Londoner. These are also employed as adjectives; but in that case they are not inflected; e. g. Londoner Kaufleute mit Hamburger Schiffen. The male sex is distinguished by er in Kater, a male cat; Tauber, a cock-pigeon; and some other names of animals. In Künstler, artist; Schuldner, debtor; Lügner, liar; and some others, l and n stand before the affix, merely for the sake of euphony.

Observation 1.—Substantives of this form, made from verbs, are not so common in German as in English. There are, however, some; such as Schneider, tailor; Reiter, rider; Leser, reader. (§ 36.)

Observation 2.—Names of countries, like Schweden, Sachsen, Schraffen, Hessen, are originally adjective-substantives, which imply at the same time the inhabitants of the countries, and therefore do not admit of the affix er.

Observation 3.—From the affix er we must distinguish that termination er which primary substantives frequently assume, and by which the signification is not affected. (§ 33.)

§ 39.

Names of females are made from names of persons, and also from some names of animals, by the affix in (Engl. *ess*); e. g. Hirtin, shepherdess; Heldin, heroine; Köchin, Freundin, Feindin, Hündin, Wölfin, a female cook, friend, antagonist, dog, wolf. In German, the sex can also generally be distinguished in this way in names of persons belonging to an office, profession, trade, rank, or nation; e. g. in Fürstin, Bürgerin, Lehrerin, Wäscherin, Leserin, Schweizerin, Engländerin. Adjectives used substantively, however, do not admit of this affix: we say, therefore, die Verwandte, die Deutsche (Deutsche, see § 50), the female relation, German woman. Amtmannin, Müllerin, Pfarrerin, &c. in the same way, signify the wife of a bailiff, a miller, a parson.

Observation.—The final n of the termination in is doubled in the plural number; e. g. in Hirtinnen.

§ 40.

Diminutives are formed from concrete substantives by the affixes chen (Engl. *kin*, in *catkin*, *mannikin*) and lein (Engl. *ling*, in *gosling*). The affix chen is preferred after a

liquid final consonant, or a final vowel; and *lein*, on the other hand, after a mute final consonant, and especially after a palatal one; e. g. in *Stühlchen*, *Söhnchen*, *Härchen*, *Bäumchen*, *Eichen*, little stool, son, hair, tree, egg; and *Knäblein*, *Mägdlein*, *Büchlein*, *Böcklein*, little boy, girl, book, buck. In the Upper-German dialect *lein* has passed into *el*, from which *Mädel*, girl; *Ärmel*, sleeve; and some other words, have been adopted. The sign *el* also denotes a diminutive signification in the verbs *frösteln* (*fröst-el-en*), *hüpfeln*, *lächeln*, to shiver, to cough a little, to smile; and it has a bad sense in *liebeln*, to make love in a foolish way; *frömmeln*, to affect devotion; *fünseln*, to do artificially, to affect.

§ 41.

Substantives formed by the affix *ling* (Engl. *ling*), are, for the most part, names of persons; e. g. *Gründling*, foundling; *Flüchtling*, refugee; *Züchtling*, prisoner in a house of correction; *Hauptling*, chieftain; *Günstling*, favourite; *Säugling*, suckling. Some of them are diminutives; e. g. *Jüngling*, a youth; *Liebling*, darling; *Schößling*, little shoot. *Witling*, witling; *Mietbling*, a mercenary; *Höfiling*, courtier; have a bad sense.

b. Abstract Substantives.

§ 42.

Infinitives may in general be regarded as verbal substantives. The German language, however, frequently employs them, with this peculiarity, that they cannot, like verbal substantives (§ 32), govern cases and prepositions. These *substantive infinitives*, although declined like other substantives, do not generally admit of the plural number, and they commonly require the definite article; e. g. *das Reisen ist jetzt gefährlich*, travelling is now dangerous: *ich bin des Sprechens müde*, I am tired of talking; *er ist in dem Zeichnen geschickt*, he is skilful in drawing. In all these respects they differ from the participial nouns of the English language, to which they correspond in point of signification. The substantive infinitives express the abstract notion of the verb in the most indefinite way, and in this respect differ from primary

and other abstract substantives, which commonly imply the abstract notion of verbs, determined either by its relation to a subject; e. g. in der Lauf der Sonne, the course of the sun; der Flug eines Vogels, the flight of a bird; or by its relation to an object, e. g. in eine Reise nach Berlin, a journey to Berlin; die Schlacht bey Waterloo, the battle of Waterloo; die Erziehung der Kinder, the education of the children. Substantive infinitives also differ from participial infinitives (see § 74, 75), which admit of an objective relation; e. g. in nach England reisen ist jetzt gefährlich; ich bin müde von der Politik zu sprechen (of speaking of politics); es ist angenehm Landschaften zu zeichnen, it is pleasant to draw landscapes.

Many substantive infinitives, however, e. g. Verlangen, desire; Bestreben, endeavour; Vergnügen, pleasure; Leiden, sorrow; Vergehen, fault; Verbrechen, crime; Vermögen, fortune; Leben, life; have assumed a definite signification, analogous to that of primary substantives: and some of them have adopted even a concrete signification; e. g. Schreiben, a letter; Andenken, souvenir; Wesen, creature.

§ 43.

Substantives are formed by the affix *ung* (Engl. *ing*), which is generally joined only to transitive derivative verbs, e. g. fällen, to fell; führen, to lead; senken, to make sink (§ 37); and to transitive compounds of radical verbs with prefixes, e. g. ertragen, to bear; erfinden, to invent; verbinden, to connect; unternehmen, to undertake; überschreiten, to transgress; untersuchen, to examine. Some substantives, however, are made in this manner from simple radical verbs, e. g. Neigung, inclination; Sitzung, session; Spaltung, division; Ziehung, the act of drawing: but they are of later introduction.

Substantives of this form are in general verbal substantives (§ 32), which still express the transitive relation of the verbs from which they are produced, e. g. die Fällung eines Baumes, the felling of a tree; die Erbauung der Stadt, the building of the city; die Erziehung der Kinder, education of children; die Hinrichtung eines Missethätters, the execution of a malefactor. Some of them, however, e. g. Erfindung, contrivance; Erfahrung, experience; Beobachtung, observation; Vorstellung, idea;

Verbindung, connection; Entfernung, distance; Verblendung, illusion; imply also an effect (that which has been contrived, experienced, observed, conceived, &c.). Waldung, woodland; Stallung, stabling; Kleidung, clothing; Haushaltung, household; and some others, have a collective signification (§ 6).

Observation.—The different significations of substantives, formed from the same verb, appear in the following examples: müde von dem Gehen, fatigued with walking; der Gang nach der Stadt, the walk to town; der Umgang mit Fremden, the intercourse with foreigners; die Umgehung einer Frage, the avoiding of a question; Talent zum Erfinden, talent for contriving; einen guten Fund thun, to find a good thing; die Erfindung des Schießpulvers, the invention of gunpowder; das Unterscheiden ist schwer, distinguishing is difficult; der Unterschied ist groß, the difference is great; die Unterscheidung des Einen von dem Andern, the act of distinguishing one from the other.

§ 44.

Collective substantives are formed by the augment ge (§ 29) from primary substantives; e.g. Gebirge, ridge of hills; Gestirn, constellation; Gesinde, the domestics; Gebüsch, bushes; Geräth, furniture; Getöse, noise; Gedränge, crowd; Gespräch, conversation; from Berg, Stern, &c. All substantives of this form, in old German, had the termination e: this, although now dropped in many instances, has induced a modification of the vowel (§ 24) which always remains, and by which substantives of this form are distinguished from augmented primary substantives, in which the signification is not affected by the augment (§ 33).

In the same way, but without any modification of the vowels, *frequentative* substantives are formed from verbs; e.g. das Gerede, das Gesinge, das Gelaufe, continued or repeated talking, singing, running; das Gemunfel und das Geschicke hat was zu bedeuten (*Schiller*), this whispering and this sending messages signifies something. This form, however, is of later introduction.

§ 45.

By the affix niß (Engl. *ness*) substantives are formed from primary substantives, especially from those provided with prefixes; e.g. Bündniß, alliance; Kimmerniß, sorrow; Erlaub-

niß, permission; Verhältniß, relation; Bedrängniß, distress; Bedürfniß, necessities; Befugniß, right; Vermächtniß, legacy; Geständniß, confession. Some of these are made from verbs; e. g. Besorgniß, apprehension; Erforderniß, requisite; Hinderniß, impediment. Substantives of this form commonly have a more limited and more particular signification than the primary substantives from which they are made.

To adjectives, this affix is in German joined only in Wildniß, wilderness; Geheimniß, secret; Finsterniß, darkness; Gleichniß, likeness.

A few substantives are formed by the affixes *sal* and *sel*; e. g. Schicksal, fate; Drangsal, calamity; Räthsél, riddle; Ueberbleibsel, remainder. In their signification, they scarcely differ from those formed by the affix *niß*.

Observation.—From Trübsal, calamity; Scheusal, a horrifying thing; the obsolete Mühsal, hardship; and some others of the same kind, the adjectives trübselig, calamitous; scheußlich (scheußelig), horrible; mühselig, painful, &c. are formed.

§ 46.

Of substantives formed by the foreign affix *ei* (Engl. *y*), there is a great variety in point of formation as well as of signification. They are formed from primary and secondary substantives, and from radical and derivative verbs. The termination *er* is commonly inserted before the affix *ei*, when there is not already another unaccented termination; e. g. in Sclav-er-ei, slavery. Substantives of this form denote the abstract notion of an action; e. g. Heuchelei, hypocrisy; Schmeichelei, flattery: or an effect; e. g. Schildei, picture; Zauberei, enchantment: or the notion of the condition or profession of persons; e. g. Sclaverei, slavery; Jägerei, hunting; Gärtner-ei, gardening. They also have a collective or frequentative signification, like those formed by the augment *ge* (§ 44); e. g. in Reiterei, cavalry; Stuterei, stud; Länderei, lands; Schwägerei, chattering; Räuberei, robbery. They have a bad sense in Spielerei, leßerei, Lauferei, playing, reading, running in a bad way; Ziererei, affectation.

§ 47.

Substantives are formed from primary adjectives by the affix *e*, and from primary as well as secondary adjectives by

heit (Engl. *hood*); e. g. Güte, goodness; Schönheit, beauty. In those made from secondary adjectives, and from such primary adjectives as have the termination *el* or *er*, the affix *heit* is commonly changed into *feit*; e. g. in Ewigkeit, eternity; Ähnlichkeit, likeness; Langsamkeit, slowness; Dankbarkeit, thankfulness; Eitelkeit, vanity; Bitterkeit, bitterness. The termination *ig* is inserted for the sake of euphony in Sprödigkeit, prudery; Frömmigkeit, piety; Steifigkeit, stiffness; and some others. Both forms express the abstract notion of the adjectives from which they are made; e. g. Stärke, strength; Schwäche, weakness; Milde, mildness; Reinheit, purity; Kühnheit, boldness. Some of them, however, are also employed in a concrete sense; e. g. Höhe, height; Fläche, plain; Wüste, desert; Süßigkeiten, sweet things; Flüssigkeit, liquid; Kleinigkeit, trifle.—Menschheit, mankind; Christenheit, Christendom; Geistlichkeit, clergy; have a collective signification (§ 6).

§ 48.

Abstract substantives are formed from names of persons by the affixes *schaft* (Engl. *ship*) and *thum* (Engl. *dom*); e. g. Freundschaft, friendship; Feindschaft, enmity; Knechtschaft, slavery; Herrschaft, dominion; Fürstenthum, principality; Christenthum, Christianity. The most part of substantives formed by those affixes have a collective signification (§ 6): viz. those formed by *schaft* imply a collection of persons, whilst those formed by *thum* signify a collection of things belonging to the persons; e. g. Ritterschaft, Judenschaft, Priesterschaft, Bürgerschaft, the whole body of the knights, Jews, priests, citizens; and Ritterthum, chivalry; Judenthum, Judaism; Priesterthum, priesthood; Heidenthum, paganism; Herzogthum, dukedom. The substantives Eigenschaft, quality; Landschaft, landscape; Wissenschaft, science; Baarschaft, ready money; Geräthschaft, instruments; Briefschaften, letters; and Eigenthum, property; Heiligthum, sanctuary; Alterthum, antiquity; Reichthum, riches; Wachsthum, growth; Irrthum, error; are the only ones made with these affixes from nouns which are not names of persons.

3. *Adjectives.*

§ 49.

Adjectives with the affix *ig* (Engl. *y*) are generally formed from abstract primary substantives; e. g. fleißig, diligent; ruhig, tranquil; mächtig, mighty; flüchtig, flighty; günstig, favourable; verdächtig, suspicious. Those made from concrete substantives are not numerous, and commonly admit of no modification of the vowel; e. g. blumig, flowery; buschig, bushy; sandig, sandy; schuppig, scaly; walzig, woody. Secondary adjectives, however, are also formed by the affix *ig* from compound substantives; e. g. langbeinig, long-legged; hohläugig, hollow-eyed; fahlföpfig, bald-headed; zweischneidig, two-edged; dreieckig, triangular: and from pronouns and adverbs of time and place; e. g. meinig, mine; deinig, thine; jeßig, present; heutig, of to-day; hiesig, of this place; dertig, of that place.

The affix *en* serves, as in English, to form adjectives from names of materials; e. g. golden, golden; seiden, silken. Before this affix the letter *r* is frequently inserted for the sake of euphony; e. g. in bleiern, leaden; hölzern, wooden; gläsern, made of glass.

§ 50.

Adjectives are formed by the affix *isch* (Engl. *ish*) from names of persons; e. g. knechtisch, slavish; diebisch, thievish; friegerisch, warlike; heuchlerisch, hypocritical: and from names of countries and places; e. g. spanisch, english, schwedisch, sächsisch, kölnisch, frankfurtisch: to the latter description, irdisch, earthly; himmlisch, heavenly; höllisch, hellish; may also be referred. From abstract substantives only, neidisch, envious; zänfisch, quarrelsome; argwöhnisch, suspicious; spöttisch, scornful; tückisch, malicious; and some others, are formed: they imply a *disposition* to envy, quarrel, suspicion, &c. This affix is more especially joined to proper names and foreign words; e. g. in der lutherische or kalvinische Glaube, Lutheran or Calvinistic belief; die gallische Schädellehre, Gall's craniology; die lanfasterische Methode, the Lancasterian method; and logisch, physisch, poetisch, theologisch, logical, physical, &c.

Observation 1.—In the oldest German, all adjectives formed from names of persons had the affix *isch*; e. g. *fürstisch*, princely; *königisch*, kingly. But more recently the affix *lich* (Engl. *ly*) has generally come in place of *isch*; e. g. *fürstlich*, *königlich*. From *Weib*, *Kind*, *Herr*, and *Knecht*, both forms of adjectives still exist:—*weiblich*, effeminate; *kindisch*, childish; *herrlich*, imperious; *knechtisch*, servile; have a bad sense, and differ in this respect from *weiblich*, feminine, female; *kindlich*, child-like; *herrlich*, noble.

Observation 2.—Adjectives formed from compound names of countries and places by means of the affix *isch*, would, if inflected, be offensive to eurythmy (§ 17). We commonly employ, therefore, in their place, and as adjectives, the substantives made by the affix *er*, which then are not inflected (§ 38); e. g. *das heidelberger Faß*, the Heidelberg tun; *die lüneburger Heide*, the Luneburg heath; *ein frankfurter Kaufmann*, a Frankfort merchant; instead of *heidelbergische*, &c.

(Eng. *some*)
§ 51.

Adjectives formed from abstract primary substantives by the affixes *bar* and *sam* (Engl. *some*), imply either possibility, e. g. *sichtbar*, visible; *gangbar*, current, passable; *fehlbar*, fallible; *furchtbar*, formidable; *lenksam*, tractable; *rathsam*, advisable:—or a disposition; e. g. *danfbar*, thankful; *fruchtbar*, fruitful; *streitbar*, able to bear arms; *wachsam*, watchful; *furchtsam*, fearful; *friedsam*, peaceful. Those formed by *bar* from verbs are of later introduction, and have the same signification with the English adjectives terminating in *ble*; e. g. *lesbar*, legible; *trinkbar*, drinkable; *esbar*, eatable; *denkbar*, conceivable.

4. *Adverbs.*

§ 52.

The words formed by the affixes *lich* (Engl. *ly*), *haft*, and *icht*, express the relation of manner, and consequently belong to the adverbs of manner; e. g. *er hat mir schriftlich*, or *mündlich berichtet*, he informed me in writing or by word of mouth; *er gibt reichlich*, he gives liberally; *er besitzt rechtlich*, he possesses lawfully; *er sieht krankhaft aus*, he looks sickly; *es schmeckt salzig*, it tastes saltish. These adverbs are also employed as adjectives, whenever the notion of the substantives to which they refer admits of the relation of manner, or if this relation is understood; e. g. *ein schriftlicher* or *mündlicher Bericht*, a written or an oral information; *eine reichliche Gabe*, a liberal

present; ein rechtlicher Besitzer, a lawful possessor; ein krankhaftes Aussehen, a sickly appearance; ein salziger Geschmack, a saltish taste; künstliche Blumen, artificial flowers (made by art). There are, however, some adverbs of time and mood (§ 10) formed by *lich* which are never used as adjectives; e. g. *neulich*, lately; *erstlich*, firstly; *folglich*, consequently; *freilich*, to be sure; *gewißlich* and *sicherlich*, certainly; *schwerlich*, hardly; *wahrlich*, indeed.

Adverbs are formed by the affixes *lich* and *haft* from abstract primary substantives, and from primary adjectives; e. g. *glücklich*, luckily; *ehrlich*, honestly; *friedlich*, peacefully; *eidlich*, by an oath; *wörtlich*, verbally; *ängstlich*, anxiously; *betrüglich*, deceitfully; *absichtlich*, on purpose; *weislich*, wisely; *treulich*, faithfully; *fälschlich*, falsely; and *standhaft*, constantly; *sündhaft*, sinfully; *scherzhaft*, jocosely; *wahrhaft*, truly; *krankhaft*, sickly; *boßhaft*, maliciously. Adverbs, however, are also made by *lich* from secondary forms and participles; e. g. *freundschaftlich*, amicably; *geflissentlich*, on purpose; *gelegentlich*, occasionally; *wissentlich*, knowingly: and some are made by *haft* from names of persons; e. g. *meisterhaft*, *schülerhaft*, *riesenhaft*, *mädchenhaft*, like a master, a schoolboy, a giant, a maiden.

From those derivatives formed by *lich*, the original signification of which is that of adverbs of manner, we must distinguish those derivatives of later introduction made by the same affix, which originally have the signification of adjectives. They are—

1. Those made from names of persons; e. g. *väterlich*, paternal; *ritterlich*, knightly; *königlich*, kingly; in which *lich* has come in place of the affix *isch*, appropriate to this formation in an earlier period (§ 50, *Obs.* 1).

2. Those diminutive adjectives which are made from other adjectives; e. g. *weißlich*, whitish; *röthlich*, reddish; *ältlich*, oldish; *süßlich*, sweetish.

3. Those made from verbs in which the affix has the same signification with *bar* (§ 51); e. g. *sterblich*, mortal; *gläublich*, credible; *beweglich*, moveable; *begreiflich*, conceivable.

Adjectives formed by *ig* from concrete substantives (§ 49), e. g. *blumig*, flowery; *gallig*, bilious; and diminutive adjectives formed by *lich*, e. g. *weißlich*,—are changed into ad-

verbs by assuming the termination *t*; e. g. *blumicht*, *gallicht*, *salzlicht*, *milchlicht*, like milk, *grünlicht*, greenishly. The affixes *icht* and *licht*, therefore, are to be considered as composed of two affixes.

Observation.—In old German, adverbs made from adjectives generally had the affix *lich*, as they still have in English the affix *ly*. At present, almost all adjectives are employed as adverbs; in which case they do not take any signs of inflection; e. g. *leise sprechen*, to speak softly; *langsam gehen*, to go slowly; *schlecht handeln*, to act basely.

CHAPTER IV.—Of Compounds.

§ 53.

When two words in relation to one another, as *boat* and *steam*, or *ever* and *how*, are united into one word, which, like other derivatives, is adopted by the language, as *steamboat*, *however*, the word thus formed is called a *Compound* (*Zusammensetzung*).

A compound, as *shoe-maker*, may be again the component part of another compound, as *shoemaker-street*; but every compound is considered as consisting only of *two* components, one of which is *determined* by the other: they are accordingly distinguished as the *Determinative* component (*steam*, *ever*, *shoemaker*), and the *Determined* component (*boat*, *how*, *street*). The unity of the word is expressed by unity of the accentuation (§ 15): the principal accent generally falls upon the determinative, whilst the subordinate accent is taken by the determined component.

In compounds, either both components are notional words (§ 1), e. g. in *steam-boat*; or both of them are relational words, e. g. in *how-ever*, *there-fore*; or one of them is a notional and the other a relational word, e. g. in *for-bid*, *for-give*.

1. Compounds of Notional words.

§ 54.

In all compounds of notional words, the components are in some *relation* one to another; which is either attributive, e. g. in

bitter-wort, white-thorn, land-lord (§ 12); or objective, e. g. in *earth-flax, eye-tooth, land-trade, nut-brown, earth-born* (§ 13). The former, in which the attributive factor has come to be the determinative component, we term *compounds by contraction* (*Zusammenfügungen*); and to the latter, in which the objective factor has been converted into the determinative component, we give the name of *compounds of union* (*Verämelungen*).

§ 55.

In compounds by union, the determinative component is either a substantive or an adverb: both of them are in an objective relation (§ 13) to the determined component, which is either a verb or adjective; e. g. in *wahrnehmen*, to perceive; *losprechen*, to acquit; *loskaufen*, to ransom; *himmelblau*, sky-blue; *grasgrün*, grass-green; *seefrank*, sea-sick:—or a verbal substantive (§ 32); e. g. in *Blutdurst*, blood-thirstiness; *Roßhändler*, horse-dealer; *Nachtwache*, night-watch; *Seiltänzer*, rope-dancer; *Fuchsjagen*, fox-hunting; *Seereise*, sea-voyage; *Bauchredner*, ventriloquist; *Wasserföhen*, hydrophobia:—or a substantive referred to by means of a participle, which is not expressed but understood; e. g. in *Weinglas*, *Wasserglas*, a glass employed for wine, for water; *Nußbaum*, *Apfelbaum*, *Kirschbaum*, a tree bearing nuts, apples, cherries; *Feldhuhn*, partridge; *Wasserhuhn*, water-fowl (*living* in the field, in water); *Baumwolle*, cotton (*wool grown* on trees); *Apfelwein*, cider; *Weizenmalz*, wheat-malt; (*made* from apples, from wheat.)

The peculiar character of compounds by union is, that two notions coalesce into *one* notion, which is conceived by the mind as a *simple* notion. *Woodcock* and *Feldhuhn* do not imply any cock and any hen living in the wood, but two particular species of birds: and the German compounds *Apfelwein*, cider; *Baumwolle*, cotton; *Handschuh*, glove; *Strumpfband*, garter; *Fingerhut*, thimble; *Taschenuhr*, watch; imply exactly the same simple notion, which is expressed by the corresponding simple words in English. Compounds of this description are new words formed to express new notions: the formation of such compounds, therefore, ought to be considered as a particular mode of derivation; and as the determinative component expresses the essential part of the whole

compound, and takes the principal accent, they may be compared to secondary derivatives; the determinative component being analogous to the stem, and the determined component to the affix of the derivative. In fact, many compounds, e. g. *Bergmann*, *Bettelmann*, *Forstmann*, *Findelkind*, and in English *sportsman*, *fisherman*, *locksmith*, do not in any manner differ, in point of signification, from the secondary derivatives: *miner*, *beggar*, *forester*, *foundling*, *Jäger*, *Fischer*, *Schlosser*, and some words which primitively were determined components,—e. g. *schaft*, *thum*, *haft*, and *full*, *like* (in *lawful*, *warlike*),—have now assumed the form and signification of affixes.

Compounds being considered as new derivative words, other derivatives are frequently made from them, either by affixes, e. g. *baumwoll-en*, of cotton; *elfelbein-en*, of ivory (§ 49); *waidmänn-lich*, sportsmanlike (§ 50); *sonntäg-lich*, belonging to Sunday (§ 52); *Handwerk-er*, handicraftsman; *Tagelöhn-er*, day-labourer (§ 38);—or by means of a second composition; e. g. *Schnupftaback-s-dose*, snuff-box; *Steinkohlen-grube*, coal mine; *Handschuh-macher*, glover. Words, however, formed by a repetition of the process of composition, e. g. *Schnupf-taback-s-dosen-fabrik*, snuff-box-manufacture; *Steinkohlen-gas-licht*, coal-gas-light; do not conform to the laws of unity of accent and notion (§ 15), and are therefore to be regarded as spurious forms of words (§ 36).

§ 56.

In compounds by union, the determinative component is not inflected; and if it has the termination *e*, this is dropped. However, if the determinative component is a substantive, it frequently, for the sake of euphony (§ 30), assumes one of the terminations *e*, *er*, *el*, *en*, *eß* (*ß*), which then are termed *signs of union* (*Ver Schm elzung sendungen*); e. g. in *Tag-e-buch*, day-book; *Asch-er-mittwoch*, Ash-Wednesday; *Heid-el-beere*, bilberry; *Birk-en-baum*, birch-tree; *Lieb-eß-brief*, love-letter;—instead of *Tagbuch*, *Heidbeere*, &c. Whether a sign of union is employed at all, and in that case which of them is preferred, depends not only on the final of the determinative and on the initial of the determined component, but also on the form of declension, and in some respect even on the signification of the de-

terminative component. The practice of the German language is not quite settled upon this point in every particular instance. In general, however, it may be comprehended under the following rules:—

1.) When the final sound of the determinative component is a vowel, or a simple liquid consonant, or *ß*, it admits of no sign of union; e. g. in *Heubeden*, hay-loft; *Mühlrad*, mill-wheel; *Kronleuchter*, lustre; *Thürhüter*, door-keeper; *Flossfeder*, fin of a fish. This rule does not generally comprehend doubled or augmented final liquids (§ 29), which are in this respect assimilated to mute consonants; except in *Pfannkuchen*, pancake; *Woll sack*, wooll sack; *Erdbeere*, strawberry; *Virtuhuhn* (*tetrao tetriz*, Lin.); *Wundpflaster*, plaster for wounds; and some others.

2.) When the determinative component terminates in the semi-consonant *z*, or in one of the mute consonants *g*, *d*, *b* (a media, § 26), it frequently assumes the sign *e* or *ez* (*ë*) if declined in the ancient, and always takes *en* if declined in the modern form; e. g. *Mausefalle*, mouse-trap; *Käsefrämer*, cheesemonger; *Tagebuch*, day-book; *Siegeslied*, triumphal song; *Rademacher*, wheelwright; *Leibeszstrafe*, corporal punishment; and *Rosenstock*, rose-tree; * *Wiegenlied*, lullaby song; *Taubenhauz*, pigeon-house. The sign *el* occurs only in *Heidelbeere*, bilberry; *Findelkind*, foundling; *Ringelblume*, marigold; and some others.

3.) When the final sound of the determinative component is a tenuis or aspirate mute consonant, it admits of no sign of union if declined in the ancient, but commonly assumes the sign *en* if declined in the modern form; e. g. *Stockfisch*, stock-fish; *Knopfloch*, button-hole; *Bettstroh*, bed-straw; *Hufnagel*, horseshoe-nail; *Dachfenster*, sky-light: and *Lippenbuchsflabe*, labial letter; *Rattenfänger*, rat-catcher; *Glockenblume*, blue-bell; *Küchenmagd*, kitchen-maid; *Waffenschmied*, armourer. The determinative component, however, though declined in the modern form, frequently assumes no sign of union, if it has a long vowel; e. g. in *Saatkorn*, seed-corn; *Bruthenne*, brood-hen; *Eichbaum*, oak-tree; *Buchweizen*, buck-wheat; *Sprachmeister*, teacher of languages; *Strafgeld*, penalty; *Taufstein*, baptistery.

4.) Names of persons and animals commonly assume a sign of union; e. g. in *Veitstanz*, St. Vitus's dance; *Königswasser*, *aqua-regia*; *Frauen-glas*, Muscovy-glass; *Wolfsbohne*, lupine; *Hammelstbraten*, roasted mutton.

5.) Determinative components, which in virtue of their final sound and of their declension ought to assume a sign of union, are frequently without it, if the determined component has for its initial a vowel, liquid, or semi-consonant; e. g. in *Radnagel*, wheel-nail; *Nashorn*, rhinoceros; *Rüböl*, rape-seed-oil; *Rübsamen*, rape-seed; *Rebstock*, vine; *Königreich*, kingdom; *Schafleder*, sheep-leather.

6.) When the determinative component is already a compound substantive, it frequently assumes the sign *s*; and when it is a derivative formed by one of the demi-accented affixes *at*, *ut*, *heit*, *ung*, *ling*, *schaft*, it always assumes the sign *s*; e. g. in *Hochzeitsgast*, one invited to a wedding; *Handwerkzeug*, tools; *Heiratsantrag*, proposal of marriage; *Einbildungskraft*, faculty of imagination; *Freiheitskrieg*, war for liberty; *Freundschaftsdienst*, office of friendship.

In general the plural number is not expressed by inflection in the determinative component; e. g. in *Apfelbaum*, apple-tree; *Baumgarten*, orchard; *Ruhhirt*, cow-herd; *Zahnbürste*, tooth-brush. In some compounds, however, it is distinguished; e. g. in *Büchersaal*, library; *Wörterbuch*, dictionary; *Kräuterkäse*, green cheese: whilst we say, on the contrary, *Buchbinder*, bookbinder; *Wortfram*, idle words.

§ 57.

In *compounds by contraction* (§ 54), the determinative component is either a substantive or an adjective in the attributive relation (§ 12) to the determined component, which is always a substantive; e. g. in *Christenfeind*, enemy of Christians; *Nasenfeder*, crow-quill; *Bauernstolz*, boorish pride; *Königssohn*, king's son; *Hohenprieſter*, high-priest; *Geheimrath*, privy-counsellor. In compounds of this description, the determinative component still has the signs of inflection expressive of the attributive relation; e. g. *der Hohenprieſter*, Gen. *des Hohenprieſters*: if it is a substantive of the feminine gender it has the sign *en*, which is the obsolete sign of the genitive

case; e. g. in *Ziegenhaar*, goat's hair; *Lerchengesang*, the lark's song. Many compounds, however, and all derivatives formed by the affixes *heit*, *schaft*, *ung*, *at*, *ut*, as well as foreign substantives having the terminations *tät* and *ion*, assume the termination *s*; e. g. *Hochzeitstag*, day of marriage; *Geburtstag*, birthday; *Wahrheitsliebe*, love of truth; *Gesandtschaftssekretär*, secretary to the embassy; *Zeitungsläser*, one who reads the newspapers; *Majestät'srecht*, right of royalty; *Religionsfreiheit*, religious liberty. The determinative component, if it is a substantive, has the principal accent; but if it is an adjective, it commonly takes a subordinate accentuation.

Compounds of this description express, indeed, a unity of notion, but they cannot, like compounds by union, be considered as new words denoting new simple notions (§ 55); and the signification of *Königssohn* scarcely differs from that of *Sohn des Königs*. On that account no other derivatives or compounds are made from them: a great many compounds by contraction, however, have adopted the signification of compounds by union, so as now to express simple notions, like those of compounds by union; e. g. *Löwenjahn*, dandelion; *Wolfsmilch*, Euphorbia; *Landesherr*, sovereign; *Wirthshaus*, inn; *Königreich*, realm; *Bürgermeister*, burgomaster; *Waterland*, native country. By this modification the determinative component frequently loses the sign of inflection; e. g. in *Mondschein*, moonlight; *Erdbeben*, earthquake; *Blutfluß*, hemorrhagy; *Jungfrau*, virgin; *Bittersalz*, Epsom salt; *Junggesell*, bachelor; *Krummstak*, crosier; *Kurzweile*, jest: in which case the adjective determinative commonly takes the principal accent. In some of them, however, as *Junggesell*, *Krauseminze* (*Mentha crispa*, Lin.), *Langeweile*, ennui, the adjective determinative still has the subordinate accent.

2. *Compounds of Relational words.*

§ 58.

In compounds of relational words, two relations, one modifying another, coalesce into one relation; e. g. *herab*, hither down; in which the local direction expressed by *her* (hither) is so modified by another relation of locality, *ab* (down), that the relation expressed by the compound is conceived in the mind

as one single relation. In these, as in other compounds, the determinative component has the principal accent; but it commonly stands after the determined component. Compounds of this description are:—

1.) Compounds of demonstrative adverbs of locality, with other adverbs of locality; e. g. *herein*, *heraus*, *herauf*, *herunter*, *herüber*, &c. *hither in*, *hither out*, *hither up*, *hither down*, *hither over*; *hinein*, *hinaus*, *hinauf*, *hinunter*, *hinüber*, &c. *thither in*, *thither out*, *thither up*, *thither down*, *thither over*; *hienieden*, *here below*; *drinnen*, *draußen*, *drunten*, *there within*, *there without*, *there below*.

2.) Compounds of two adverbs of locality; e. g. *voran*, *veraus*, *before*; *vorbei*, *by*; *vorüber*, *by*, *over*; *zuvor*, *heretofore*; *zuwider*, *against*; *durchaus*, *throughout*; *zurück*, *back*; *vornwärts*, *forwards*; *rückwärts*, *backwards*; and some others.

From these compounds we must distinguish those in which a preposition and the case of a pronoun governed by the preposition are contracted into one word; e. g. *nachdem*, *after that*; *indem*, *in that*; *zudem*, *to that*; *seitdem*, *since that*; and *daran*, *thereon*; *darauf*, *thereupon*; *darin*, *therein*; *davon*, *thereof*; *hierin*, *herein*; *hierauf*, *hereupon*; *hernach*, *hereafter*; *worauf*, *whereupon*; *worin*, *wherein*; *wofür*, *wherefore*; *vorher*, *before that*; *vorhin*, *before this*; *nachher*, *after that*; *mithin*, *with this*; *bisher*, *till now*; &c.—in which the governed cases of the pronouns have assumed the form of adverbs. Of the same description are, *daher*, *thence*; *dahin*, *thither*; *woher*, *whence*; *wohin*, *whither*; in which the adverbs *her* and *hin* have the signification of the prepositions *from* and *to*. The relation expressed by these compounds is not conceived in the mind as one single relation; they may therefore be compared with compounds by contraction (§ 57). Some of them, however,—e. g. *indem*, *since*; *nachdem*, *after*; *zudem*, *moreover*; *seitdem*, *since*;—have now come to imply single relations, and are employed as conjunctions.

3. *Compounds of Notional with Relational words.*

§ 59.

The notions of adjectives are in German, as in English,

negated by composition with the negative adverb *un* (Engl. *un*); e. g. *unfäglich*, unspeakable; *unerhört*, unheard; *unschätzbar*, invaluable; *ungefucht*, unasked; *unnöglich*, impossible; *unmerklich*, imperceptible; *unglaublich*, incredible: the negative adverb in this case takes the subordinate accent.

The same adverb, however, in composition with substantives and also with many adjectives, commonly does not merely express a negation, but, like the English *mis* and *dis*, implies an opposition to the notion expressed by those words; in consequence of which it assumes the principal accent; e. g. in *Unglück*, misfortune, hardship; *Undank*, ingratitude; *Unfall*, mischance; *Unheil*, mischief; *Unlust*, disgust; *Unmensch*, a cruel man; *ungefand*, sickly; *ungezogen*, ill-bred; *unehrlich*, dishonest; *ungefickt*, awkward.

Verbs are compounded with adverbs, by which either the notion of the verb itself is modified, or only a relation of the notion is expressed. The most part of prepositions, though themselves relational words, are in composition employed as adverbs of locality, and so modify the notions of verbs united with them, that the adverbial component expresses the principal notion of the compound; e. g. *abnehmen*, to decrease; *zunehmen*, to increase; *absteigen*, to descend; *aufsteigen*, to ascend; *ausschließen*, to unlock; *zuschließen*, to shut up. In such compounds the adverb assumes the part of the determinative component in compounds by union (§ 55), and therefore receives the principal accent. The laws of German construction require the adverb, as the principal component, always to take the place of the predicative factor; whilst the verb, as the subordinate component, takes that of the copula (see § 205): the adverb consequently being frequently placed after the verb, and separated from it, compounds of the kind now described are termed *separable compound verbs*.

When a verb is compounded with an adverb, which does not thus essentially modify the notion of the verb, but only implies in a general way a relation of that notion to the subject or to an object, the adverbial component takes the subordinate accent, and is not separated from the verb. We give the name of *Prefixes* to the adverbial components of this description, and that of *inseparable* to the compound verbs

formed with them; e. g. *beruhigen*, to calm; *bespißen*, to be-dash; *vergessen*, to forget; *unternehmen*, to undertake. The prefixes *be*, *er*, *ver*, *ent*, *zer*, and *miß*, are employed only as components of inseparable compound verbs: the prefixes *durch*, *hinter*, *unter*, *über*, *um*, *wider*, on the other hand, are also employed as prepositions and as determinative components of separable compound verbs. The adverb *voll* also, has, like the English *full* in *to fulfil*, assumed the signification and the nature of a prefix, in *vollenden*, *vollbringen*, to achieve, to accomplish; *vollführen*, *vollstrecken*, *vollziehen*, to execute. The prefixes *be*, *er*, *ver*, *zer*, are unaccented; all the others are semi-accented.

Observation.—The formation and use of separable compound verbs is more frequent in German than in English. The English compound verbs, e. g. *to break forth*, *to break in*, *to break off*, *to break out*, *to break up*, do not differ in point of signification from the German separable compound verbs, e. g. *hervortreten*, *einbrechen*, *abbrechen*, *ausbrechen*, *aufbrechen*, and have therefore the same accentuation. The difference consists merely in the different modes of construction adopted by the two languages; in consequence of which the preposition, which in English always follows the verb, is in German frequently placed before the verb, and not separated from it. The prefixes *be*, *er*, *ver*, *ent*, *zer*, correspond to the English prefixes *be*, *for*, *un*, *dis*, in *beuail*, *forget*, *undress*, *displease*; and the prefixes *durch*, *hinter*, *unter*, *über*, *um*, *wider*, to the English *under*, *over*, *with*, in *undertake*, *overtake*, *withstand*.

Prefixes.

§ 60.

The prefix *be*, like the English *be* in *to bespeak*, denotes a transitive relation to an object acted upon, and therefore changes intransitive into transitive verbs; e. g. in *bewainen* and *beflagen*, to bewail; *bewachen*, to watch; *bereden*, to persuade; *bestreuen*, to bestrew. Prefixed to transitive verbs, it alters the relation in which the simple verb stands towards an object; e. g. *bekennen*, to confess; *bedecken*, to cover; *bemalen*, to paint (the walls); *bespflanzen*, to plant (a garden with trees); *berauben*, to rob (a person); *beschenken*, to present (one with something); which differ from the simple verbs implying to know, to lay, to paint (a picture), to plant (a tree), to steal (something), to give. By means of the same prefix transitive

derivative verbs are formed from substantives and adjectives; e. g. *begaben*, to present one; *benühen*, to give trouble; *belohnen*, to reward; *begränzen*, to limit; *beglücken*, to make happy; *bekleiden*, to clothe; *befreien*, to free; *begünstigen*, to favour; from *Gabe*, *Mühe*, *Lohn*, *Gränze*, *Glück*, *Kleid*, *frei*, *günstig*. Many verbs of this description, e. g. *begaben*, *befreien*, *belustigen*, *begünstigen*; and *betheuern*, to give a share; *beseelen*, to animate; *bethören*, to insatuate; *beschweren*, to charge; *beschäftigen*, to employ one; *beruhigen*, to appease; *befriedigen*, to satisfy;—are only used in this compound form, and never as simple verbs (*gaben*, *freien*, &c.).

§ 61.

The prefixes *er* and *ver* signify a relation to an object, which is conceived as a personal one: *er* implies a direction *towards* or in *favour* of this personal object, and *ver* the direction *from* or to the *disadvantage* of the same. The personal object referred to is either expressed by the dative case; e. g. in *erlauben*, to permit one; *einem ertheilen*, to impart to one; *einem verbieten*, to forbid one*; *einem verzeihen*, to forgive one;—or understood; e. g. in *ersparen*, to save; *erlangen*, to attain; *verlieren*, to loose; *verschwinden*, to disappear.

The personal object referred to is either the subject of the verb; e. g. in *erwerben*, to acquire; *erlangen*, to obtain; *erlernen*, to learn; *erzwingen*, to obtain by force; and *verlieren*, to loose; *vergessen*, to forget; *verschenken*, to give away;—or another subject; e. g. in *erwidern*, to return; *erklären*, to explain; *ergeigen*, to show; and *versprechen*, to promise; *versagen*, to refuse; *vertrauen*, to trust; *vergeltten*, to retaliate. The personal relation is more generalized in *erhalten*, to preserve; *erheben*, to raise; *erhellen*, to light up; *erschaffen*, to create; *erscheinen*, to appear; and *verheeren*, to lay waste; *versenken*, to sink; *verdunkeln*, to darken; *vernichten*, to annihilate; *verschwinden*, to disappear.

The prefix *er* more especially assumes the signification of *acquisition* in *erbetteln*, *erzwingen*, *erarbeiten*, *erbeucheln*, *erlügen*, *erjagen*, to *obtain* by begging, by force, by labour, by hypo-

* Ohne die Saat erklüht ihm die Ernte. Schiller.

crisy, by lies, by hurting *;—and of a *progressive development and improvement* in *erblühen*, to get blossoms; *erwachsen*, to grow up; *erwachen*, to awaken; *erstarken*, to grow strong; *sich ermannen*, to take courage; *erröthen*, to blush. *Ver*, on the other hand, signifies a *loss* in *verspielen*, *vertrinken*, *verschlafen*, *versäumen*, *verprassen*, to lose by playing, by drinking, by sleeping, by delaying, by feasting;—a *deterioration* in *verblühen*, to lose the blossoms; *verbleichen*, to grow pale; *verdorren*, to wither; *verfallen*, to decay; *verwöhnen*, *verziehen*, to spoil (a child);—and *mistake* in *verfennen*, to mistake; *sich verrechnen*, to count wrong; *sich verreden*, to speak amiss; *sich versehen*, to see wrong, to mistake †. In some instances, however, e. g. in *erfrieren*, to freeze to death; *erschrecken*, to be frightened; *erlöschen*, to be extinguished; *veredeln*, to ennoble; *verfeinern*, to refine; *verschönern*, to embellish; *verbessern*, to improve; and many others equally formed from adjectives in the comparative degree,—the prefixes *er* and *ver* are not opposed to one another in their signification.

§ 62.

When the prefix *ent* occurs before transitive derivative verbs formed from substantives or adjectives,—e. g. in *enthaupten*, to behead; *entfesseln*, to unfetter; *entkleiden*, to undress; *entkräften*, to enervate; *entseelen*, to exanimate; *entlarven*, to unmask; *entheiligen*, to profane; *entschuldigen*, to exculpate; most of which are not met with as simple verbs,—it expresses a negation, like the corresponding prefix *un* in English ‡. From this negative prefix differs that which stands before other verbs, radical or derivative, transitive or intransitive; e. g. in *entgehen*, *entfliehen*, to escape; *entführen*, to carry off; *entfernen*, to remove; *entreißen*, to snatch from; *entsagen*, to renounce: it has quite a different sense, and merely implies

* Der Mann muß hinaus ins feindliche Leben,
 Muß pflanzen und schaffen,
 Erlisten, erraffen,
 Muß wetten und wagen
 Das Glück zu erjagen. Schiller.

† Wenn du glaubst, ich werde eine Rolle in deinem Spiele spielen, hast du dich in mir verrechnet. Sch.

‡ Der Sieger steht entzündigt. Wieland.

separation *. In *entsprechen*, to answer; *entbieten*, to bid; *enthalten*, to contain, the prefix *ent* stands in place of *an*, which in the same way has been changed into *emp* before the labial sound in *empfehlen*, to recommend; *empfangen*, to receive; *empfinden*, to feel.

The prefix *zer* implies the dissolution of a whole into its parts, and therefore generally its destruction; e. g. in *zergehen*, to liquify; *zerfallen*, to fall to pieces; *zersetzen*, to decompose; *zerbrechen*, to strike to pieces †.

Observation.—Prefixes stand only before simple verbs, and not before compound ones; for verbs like *betrachten*, to observe; *beauftragen*, to charge; *verantworten*, to account for; are not made from the verbs *bachten*, &c. but from the substantives *Bacht*, *Auftrag*, *Antwort*. Nor can verbs compounded with prefixes generally be again compounded with adverbs. Verbs like *anfehlen*, to recommend; *anerkennen*, to acknowledge; *anvertrauen*, to trust; *verbehalten*, to reserve; are anomalous compounds; and the most part of them,—e. g. *anbelangen*, to concern; *aufersiehen*, to rise from the dead; *aufbauen*, to edify; *auflegen*, to enjoin; *auserlesen*, *auserwählen*, to choose;—are not employed whenever the construction of the sentence requires that the separable component should be separated from the verb.

§ 63.

When the adverbs *durch*, through; *hinter*, behind; *über*, over; *unter*, under; *um*, round, about; *wider*, against; *voll*, fully, compounded with verbs, have the subordinate accent, they are of the description of *prefixes*, and form *inseparable* compound verbs (§ 59). When these adverbs are employed as prefixes, their original signification is generalized in a peculiar way, like that of the English *over*, *under*, *out*, *with*, in *to overact*, *to undertake*, *to outbid*, *to withdraw*. In this way, e. g. *durch* implies a relation to the whole of a space or body, in *durchblättern*, to turn over (a book); *durchdringen*, to penetrate; *durchforschen*, to scrutinize thoroughly. Many verbs have different significations, according as they are either inseparable compound verbs with the full accent laid upon the verb, or separable compound verbs with the full accent laid upon the

* Das Wasser entfällt der Stelle des Felsens. *Goethe*.

† Sieh, wie sie alle in einem Hui zerrieben. *Wieland*.
Die Ideale sind zerrieben. *Schiller*.

adverbial component; the former being generally transitive, the latter, on the other hand, having for the most part an intransitive signification. Thus we distinguish,

*Inseparable.**Separable.*

durchdringen, to penetrate ..	from	{ durchdringen, to make one's way through.
durchgehen, to walk from one end to the other.....	} —	{ durchgehen, to go through, to escape.
durchlaufen, to run from one end to the other.....	} —	{ durchlaufen, to run through.
durchreisen, to travel over....	—	durchreisen, to travel through.
durchsehen, to penetrate (a plot)	—	{ durchsehen, to look through (a book).
durchstreichen, to wander over	—	durchstreichen, to strike out.
überführen, to convince.....	—	überführen, to convey over.
übergehen, to pass in silence ..	—	{ übergehen, to go over, to pass over.
überschreiten, to transgress ..	—	überschreiten, to step over.
übersetzen, to translate	—	{ übersetzen, to go over (across a river).
übertreiben, to exaggerate....	—	übertreiben, to distil (spirits).
unterhalten, to entertain	—	unterhalten, to hold under.
unterschieben, to substitute falsely	} —	{ unterschieben, to shove under.
umgehen, to go round, to avoid	—	{ umgehen, to make a roundabout, to converse.
umfleiden, to clothe about ..	—	umfleiden, to change dress.

The adverb *miß* (Engl. *mis*) is in German, as in English, only employed as a prefix; e. g. *mißbrauchen*, to abuse; *mißfallen*, to displease. Like *voll* in a few compounds (§ 59), *wieder*, again, has assumed the nature of a prefix in *wiederholen*, to repeat.

Observation 1.—As the prefixes *durch*, *hinter*, *über*, *unter*, *um*, *wider*, *miß*, generally express a transitive relation to an object, the verbs compounded with them generally give rise to substantives of the form *ung* (§ 43); e. g. *Unterhaltung*, conversation, entertainment; *Ueberzeugung*, conviction; *Unterscheidung*, distinction. When, however, primary substantives are formed from the same verbs, e. g. *Unterhalt*, subsistence; *Unterschied*, difference; *Unterschrift*, signature; *Ueberfall*, surprise; *Widerstand*, resistance; *Mißbrauch*, abuse; *Mißgunst*, envy (§ 33, 34), the principal accent is always laid on the prefix.

Observation 2.—In order to know whether in any particular instance the

adverbial components durch, hinter, über, unter, um, wider, mit, have the principal accent and are separable, or, being prefixes, have the subordinate accent and are inseparable, foreigners must refer to good dictionaries.

Observation 3.—The prepositions aus, out; auf, on, up; zu, to; nach, after; vor, before, although always forming separable compound verbs, frequently have their signification so generalized, that they in this respect are like prefixes. Thus aus implies *finishing* an action in ausbauen, ausmalen, to finish a house, a painting; ausruhen, ausschlafen, to rest, to sleep enough; ausbluten, austanzen, to cease bleeding, dancing*:—auf expresses *opening* in aufthun, aufmachen, aufschließen, to open; aufknöpfen, to unbutton; aufdecken, to uncover;—and *consuming* in aufrennen, aufessen, aufzehren, to consume by burning, eating; aufreissen, to annihilate:—zu implies *shutting* or *covering* in zumachen, zuschließen, to close; zuknöpfen, to button; zudecken, to cover; zubeilen, to heal up (a wound):—nach implies *doing in imitation* of another in nachsprechen, nachsetzen, to speak, to pray, in imitation of another:—and vor signifies *doing before one*, in order to show how to do, in versagen, versprechen, versingen, vermachen, to say, to speak, to sing, to do, for that purpose before another.

Observation 4.—Foreigners can never understand perfectly the meaning of German words, unless they acquire a facility in tracing derivatives to their respective primitives and to their roots (if these are known), and in resolving compounds into their components. The following derivative and compound words may serve as exercises for analysing:

Be-dach-t:sam-keit, considerateness,	root denken.
Be-red:sam-keit, eloquence,	— reden.
be-ruh:ig-en, to appease,	— ruhen.
be-mäch-tig-en (sich), to seize,	— mögen.
Dank-bar-keit, gratitude,	— denken.
Ent-halt:sam-keit, abstemiousness,...	— halten.
Ge-brech-lich-keit, frailty,	— brechen.
Ge-spräch:ig-keit, talkativeness,.....	— sprechen.
Un-thät:ig-keit, inactivity,	— thun.
Bundes-genosse, an ally,	— finden and genießen.
Ehr-begierde, ambition,	— (be) gebren.
Ehr-ab-schneider, slanderer,	— schneiden.
ehr-erbietig, respectful,	— bieten.
Er-d-be-schreibung, geography,	— schreiben.
Feld-zug, campaign,	— ziehen.
Müssig-gänger, idler,	— gehen.
neu-gierig, curious,	— (be) gebren.
Un-ab-hängig-keit, independence, ...	— hängen.

* Der Sturm hat ausgelebt. Schiller.
Weine dich aus. Schiller.

SECTION II.—OF THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF WORDS AND THEIR INFLECTION.

CHAPTER I.—Of Verbs.

§ 64.

VERBS are, in point of form, either *Radical* verbs (§ 31), or *Derivative* verbs (§ 37), and either *Simple* or *Compound* verbs (§ 59); and, in point of signification they are either *Intransitive* or *Transitive*. In radical verbs the signification, either transitive or intransitive, is not distinguished by the form of the verb; and many of them are employed in both significations (§ 31). Derivative and compound verbs, on the other hand, are generally distinguished as transitive or intransitive by their form. Derivative verbs are for the most part transitive, and of the description of *Factitive* verbs (§ 5, 37); and compound verbs with the prefixes *bei*, *durch*, *hinter*, *über*, *unter*, *um*, *wider*, *miß*, are also, with a few exceptions, transitive (§ 60, 63).

§ 65.

Many transitive verbs,—e. g. *grämen*, to afflict; *weigern*, to refuse something; *täuschen*, to deceive; *setzen*, to place; *legen*, to lay; *ärgern*, to vex; *bewegen*, to move something; *erinnern*, to remind; *rühmen*, to praise; *hüten*, to guard; *verändern*, to alter something; *unterwerfen*, to subdue,—are rendered intransitive by assuming the *reflexive* form; e. g. *sich grämen*, to be grieved; *sich weigern*, to refuse; *sich täuschen*, to err; *sich setzen*, to sit down; *sich legen*, to lay down; *sich ärgern*, to be vexed; *sich bewegen*, to move; *sich erinnern*, to recollect; *sich rühmen*, to boast; *sich hüten*, to take heed; *sich verändern*, to alter; *sich unterwerfen*, to submit (§ 5). Many verbs, however, are only employed in the reflexive form; e. g. *sich schämen*, to be ashamed; *sich sehnen*, to long; *sich bestimmen*, to reflect; *sich bestreuen*, to endeavour; *sich ereignen*, to happen; *sich bedanken*, to thank; *sich erbarmen*, to have pity; *sich entschließen*, to resolve; *sich unterstehen*, to dare; *sich widersetzen*, to oppose.

The reflexive form of verbs is frequently employed in the plural number, in order to express a reciprocal action between two or more subjects; e. g. *die Knaben schlagen sich*, the boys fight one with another; *die Hunde beißen sich*, the dogs bite one another; *sie hassen sich*, they hate one another; *wir werden uns wieder sehen*, we shall see one another again: it then assumes the name of the *Reciprocal* form of verbs*. This form may also be adopted by intransitive as well as by transitive verbs; in which case the reflexive pronoun stands in the dative case; e. g. *die Brüder gleichen sich*, the brothers resemble one another; *sie begegnen sich*, they meet (one another); *wir drückten uns die Hände*, we shook hands (with one another).

Observation.—The reflexive form of verbs is very extensively employed in German; it in some measure supplies the middle voice of the Greek.

§ 66.

The passive voice of verbs is in German, as in English, formed by means of an auxiliary verb; but in German, *werden*, and not *sein* (to be), is the auxiliary verb of the passive voice; e. g. *ich werde geliebt*, I am loved; *er ist geschlagen worden*, he has been beaten. The passive voice may, like the reflexive form (§ 65), be considered in some measure as a peculiar form of intransitive verbs: we accordingly find that those two forms are frequently employed one for another, not only in different languages, but even in one and the same language. In English, where the reflexive form is wanting, an intransitive notion is frequently expressed by the passive voice, as is also done in Latin in the deponent verbs. The German language generally employs the reflexive form in these cases; e. g. *sich wundern*, to be surprised (Lat. *mirari*); *sich freuen*, to be pleased (Lat. *letari*); *sich betrüben*, to be afflicted (Lat. *contristari*); *sich bewegen*, to be moved (Lat. *moveri*); *sich verändern*, to be changed; *sich drehen*, *sich wenden*, to turn (Lat. *verti*); *sich schämen*, to be ashamed; *sich verdunkeln*, *sich verfinstern*, to

* *Werd' ich zwei Herzen trennen, die sich fanden? Sch.*
Erst mußtet Ihr's vertragen, als Brüder euch zu sehen. Sch.
Sie hat zwei Söhne, die sich tödlich hassen. Sch.

be eclipsed; sich befehren, to be converted *. The use of the passive voice in the personal form is in German admitted only when the action to be expressed is really a suffering; e. g. der Schlüssel ist von mir gefunden worden, the key has been found by me; die Frage wird von ihm beantwortet, the question is answered by him; er wird von seinen Zuhörern verstanden, he is understood by his hearers; dieß Werkzeug wird von den Schmieden gebraucht, this instrument is used by the smiths. But even this suffering is frequently conceived as an intransitive action, and consequently expressed by the reflexive form, when the active object does not require to be mentioned; e. g. der Schlüssel hat sich gefunden, the key has been found; diese Frage beantwortet sich leicht, this question is easily answered; das versteht sich von selbst, that is self-evident; dieses Werkzeug handhabet sich leicht, this instrument is easily managed †.

Observation.—The propriety of classing the passive voice with the intransitive verbs further appears from the practice of the Greek, where it differs very little from the middle voice (§ 65, *Obs.*), and from that of the Russian and other Slavonian languages, in which it is quite the same with the reflexive form.

§ 67.

Impersonal verbs are those which are used only in the third person singular, and in which the subject of a verb is expressed in a manner quite indeterminate by the indefinite pronoun *es* (see § 122). Some impersonal verbs, e. g. *es* regnet, it rains; *es* schneiet, it snows; *es* donnert, it thunders; *es* blizet, it lightens, are common to most languages: other impersonal forms, however, occur in German, which are not used in English. In the first place the passive voice of intransitive verbs is employed impersonally, as in Latin, when the subject of the

* Es füllt sich der verödete Pallast. *Sch.*

Ueber dem muthigen Schwimmer schließt sich der Rachen. *Sch.*

Die Felder decken sich mit neuem Grün. *Sch.*

Alles hat sich nun erfüllt.

† Pforten bauen sich aus grünen Zweigen, und um die Säule windet sich der Kranz. *Sch.*

Ein lasterhaftes Leben büßt sich in Mangel und Erniedrigung. *Sch.*

Oh' sich ein Henker für mich findet. *Sch.*

Das lernt sich nur um des Feldherrn Person. *Sch.*

Thaten sind geschehen die sich nie vergeben und vergessen. *Sch.*

verb is to be expressed only in an indeterminate way ; e. g. *es wird gelaufen*, they run (Lat. *curritur*) ; *es wurde getanzt*, there was dancing (Lat. *saltabatur*) * : and in this case especially the reflexive form is frequently employed in the room of the passive voice ; e. g. *es tanzt, es schläft sich hier gut*, this place does well for dancing, for sleeping †.

There are moreover, in German, impersonal verbs, in which the subject of an intransitive action is represented as an object ; e. g. *es durstet mich, es hungert mich*, I am thirsty, hungry ; *es friert mich*, I am chilled ; *es schaudert mich*, I shudder. This mode of speaking expresses not so much the condition as the feeling of thirst, of hunger, &c.

The verbs *es reuet (mich)*, I repent ; *es freuet (mich)*, I am glad ; *es wundert (mich)*, I wonder ; *es dünkt (mich)*, *es dünkt (mir)*, methinks ; *es ahnet (mir)*, my mind forebodes ; *es beliebt (mir)*, I am pleased ; *es gelüftet (mich)*, I long for ; *es gilt*, it concerns ; *es heißt*, it is said ; *es scheint*, it seems, and some others, also have the form of impersonal verbs. Properly speaking, however, they are no impersonal verbs, because the subject denoted by the pronoun *es* is again expressed by the accessory sentence following, or by a verb in the supine ; e. g. *es reut mich, daß ich es gethan habe*, that I have done it ; or *es gethan zu haben*, to have done it.

The verb *geben*, to give, is employed impersonally in a peculiar way in order to express *existence*, as is implied by *there is, there are*, in English, and by *il y a* in French ; e. g. *es gibt Leute*, there are people ; *es gibt keine Einhörner*, unicorns do not exist ‡. However, *es gibt* never stands in the room of *there is* when a locality is to be expressed ; e. g. in *there* (in that place) *is* (dwells) a friend of mine in London.

Observation.—One and the same verb frequently assumes different significations, according as its form is altered ; e. g. *stellen*, to place, *sich stellen*, to feign ; *vergehen*, to pass away, *sich vergehen*, to commit a fault ; *verlassen*,

* Um Herrschaft und um Freiheit wird gerungen. Sch.

† Von eurer Fahrt kehrt sich's nicht immer wieder. Sch.
Lebhast träumt sich's unter diesem Baume. Sch.

‡ Es gibt böse Geister, die in des Menschen Brust ihren Wohnsitz nehmen. Sch.
Es gibt im Menschenleben Augenblicke, wo er dem Weltgeist näher ist als sonst. Sch.

Es gibt noch Riesen, doch keine Ritter gibt es mehr. Sch.

to leave, *sich verlassen* (auf Einen), to rely on one; *verstehen*, to understand, *sich* (auf Etwas) *verstehen*, to be skilful in something, *es versteht sich*, it is a matter of course; *ich hungere und durste*, I am without eating and drinking, *es hungert und durstet mich*, I feel hunger and thirst; *heißen*, to be called, *es heißt*, it is said.

§ 68.

From *notional* verbs, i. e. verbs implying notions of action, we distinguish *relational* verbs, i. e. those which merely express the relations of action (§ 3, 8). The verb *sein*, to be, and the *auxiliary verbs*, are of this description. Whenever the predicate is expressed by an adjective or substantive, its relation to the subject and to the speaker, which otherwise is expressed by the inflection of a notional verb, is denoted by the verb *sein* (§ 7). The same verb in German, as in English, is also employed as an auxiliary verb of tenses.

Auxiliary verbs are either auxiliary verbs of *tenses*, or auxiliary verbs of *mood* (§ 10).

§ 69.

The German auxiliary verbs of tenses are, *haben*, to have, for the perfect and pluperfect tenses of all transitive and of many intransitive verbs; *sein*, to be, for the same tenses of the most part of intransitive verbs; and *werden*, to become, for the future tenses. *Werden* also serves to make all forms of the passive voice (§ 66).

Observation 1.—The verbs *haben* and *werden*, used by themselves, are to be regarded as notional verbs: *werden* has the signification of the English *to become*, *to grow*; e. g. *er wird reich*, he becomes rich; *er wird alt*, he grows old.

Observation 2.—The verbs *sollen* and *wollen*, I shall, I will, are not, as in English, employed as auxiliary verbs for the future tense; nor is the verb *sein* ever employed in the sense of *to be* in the English expression, *I am coming*, *he is to speak*.

§ 70.

The verbs *können*, I can; *dürfen*, to dare; *mögen*, I may; *müssen*, I must; *sollen*, I shall; *wollen*, I will; and *lassen*, to let; do not express *notions of an action*, but *relations of mood*; that is to say, the possibility or necessity of an action indicated by another verb, which is either expressed or understood, and

with which they are always connected (§ 8); and on this account they are termed *auxiliary verbs of mood*; e. g. er kann weglassen, he can (is able to) run away; ich muß jetzt gehen, I must go now. In general, *possibility* is expressed by können, dürfen, mögen, and *necessity* by müssen, sollen, wollen; lassen implies necessity as well as possibility.

The verb können implies physical possibility, like *I can* and *I am able* in English; e. g. der Hund kann schwimmen, the dog can swim; ich kann den Brief lesen, I am able to read the letter: —dürfen and mögen express moral possibility, i. e. liberty and permission: dürfen signifies that an action is permitted by law or by a person; e. g. Jedermann darf Waffen tragen, every body is permitted to bear arms; darf ich diesen Brief lesen? am I permitted to read this letter? whilst mögen generally expresses that the speaker allows another person to do something; e. g. du magst den Brief lesen, you may (I allow you to) read the letter; da er müde ist, so mag er ausruhen, since he is fatigued, he may (I allow him to) take rest; ihr möget einen Versuch machen, you may make an attempt (I have no objection to it). From the physical and moral possibility of an action asserted, which is expressed in this way by the verbs können, dürfen, mögen, we must distinguish the logical possibility of the assertion, i. e. the possibility granted by the speaker, which is also expressed by können, mögen, dürfen; e. g. er kann schon abgereist sein, it may be that he has set out already; er könnte uns verrathen haben, it might be that he had betrayed us: which differ from er hat abreisen können, he has been able to set out; er hätte uns verrathen können, he might have been able to betray us. Dürfen is employed in this way only in the conditional mood, in order to express conjecture; e. g. er dürfte dir wol nicht alles erzählt haben, very likely he has not told you every thing. But mögen is commonly used when a probability or conjecture is granted by the speaker; e. g. in er mag Recht haben, he may be (I suppose he is) in the right; er mag ein braver Mann sein, he may be (I believe that he is) a clever man; er mag zwanzig Jahre alt sein, he may be about twenty years of age; ich mag thun was ich will, so ist es unrecht, I may do what I will, it does not please; du magst lachen oder weinen, es ist einerlei, you may laugh or cry, it is all the same. Mögen implies also a wish

that something may be done, and the inclination to do something; e. g. möge er bald zurückkehren, may he return soon; ich mag ihn nicht sehen, I do not like to see him; ich mag nicht tanzen, I do not like to dance *. In this way mögen assumes the signification of *to like*; e. g. ich mag diese Speise nicht, I do not like this meat; ich mag den Wein nicht, I do not like the wine. In these expressions the verb in the infinitive (to eat, to drink) is understood †. The use of mögen in the signification of physical power is antiquated in German; e. g. graben mag ich nicht (*Luc.* 16. 3.): and vermögen is applied to that signification in the room of mögen; e. g. wer vermag ihm zu widerstehn? who is able to resist him?

Müssen implies physical necessity, and moral necessity enforced by law; e. g. alle Menschen müssen sterben, all men must die; Kinder müssen ihren Eltern gehorchen, children must (are obliged to) obey their parents ‡. Sollen and wollen express moral necessity; sollen, when it is enforced by command of another; wollen, when it depends on the active subject's own will; e. g. er will nach Hause gehn, aber er soll hier bleiben, he wishes to go home, but he must (is ordered to) stay here; er will alles haben und ich soll nichts haben, he wishes to have everything, and me (he wishes) to have nothing §. As by dürfen, können, mögen, not only a possibility of the action asserted but also the possibility of the assertion is expressed, in the same way müssen, sollen, and wollen, are frequently employed in order to express the necessity of the assertion. Thus müssen expresses a supposition of the speaker, whilst sollen, like *dicor* in Latin, expresses a supposition on the part of the

* Was sich verträgt mit meiner Pflicht mag ich ihr gern erweisen. Sch.
Wol möcht' ich wissen was zu glauben ist. Sch.

† Sie mögen uns alle nicht. Sch.
Auch nicht im Tode mag ich Deinen Bund. Sch.

‡ Ein Oberhaupt muß sein. Sch.
Der ältere Bruder muß dem jüngern weichen. Sch.
Ihr seid mein Gast, ich muß für eure Sicherheit gewähren. Sch.
Für seinen König muß das Volk sich opfern:
Das ist das Schicksal und Gesetz der Welt. Sch.

§ Charles, king of France, says in 'Jungfrau von Orleans':—"Die Truppen alle sollen sich mit Zweigen bekränzen, ihre Brüder zu empfangen und alle Glocken sollen es verkünden daß Frankreich und Burgund sich neu verkünden:" and Queen Elizabeth, in 'Maria Stuart' says:—"Sterben soll sie (Mary) und er (Leicester) soll sie fallen sehn, und nach ihr sterben."

public, and wollen a supposition of a third person; e. g. er muß sehr krank gewesen sein, he must have been very ill; er muß sehr reich sein, he must be very rich; er soll in der Stadt sein, Einige wollen ihn gesehen haben, he is supposed to be in town, some people *think* or *say that* they have seen him; der König soll gestorben sein, L—— will es in der Zeitung gelesen haben, it is said that the king died, L—— thinks or says that he has read it in the newspapers *.

Lassen expresses on the one hand a permission, and on the other a command and causation; e. g. laß ihn gehn, let him go, permit him to go; er läßt den Vogel fliegen, he lets the bird fly; sie lassen von London Uhren kommen, they get watches brought from London; er läßt den Hund tanzen, he makes the dog dance; der König hat ihn hinrichten lassen, the king caused him to be executed. In expressions like das läßt schön, that looks pretty; sie haben ihm nichts gelassen, they have left him nothing;—lassen is a notional verb, and requires to be distinguished from the auxiliary.

Observation.—The verb thun is not employed in High-German as an auxiliary verb of mood, like the English *to do*, which renders an expression positive in such phrases as, *he does come, do go*, and has therefore come into general use in interrogative and negative sentences; e. g. *does he come? he does not go.*

§ 71.

The conjugation of verbs expresses the different relations of the notion expressed by the verb to the speaker. The forms of conjugation are, *Moods* for the relation of reality; *Tenses* for the relation of time; and *Persons*, in the singular and plural *Numbers*, for the agreement of the verb with the subject, and for the relation of the latter to the speaker (§ 8).

By the conjugation of verbs, four different moods are formed in German: viz. the *Indicative* mood for real existence asserted by the speaker; e. g. das Kind weint, the child cries; das Kind hat geweinet, the child has cried;—the *Conjunctive* mood for real existence asserted by a subject spoken of; e. g. die Wärterin sagt, das Kind schreie, or habe geschrieben, the

* Du willst ihn zu einem guten Zwecke betrogen haben! Sch.
Es soll eine wichtige Nachricht sein, hör' ich. Sch.

nurse says the child cries, &c.;—the *Conditional* mood for that possibility which is not conceived as really existing; e.g. *käme er doch wieder aus dem Grabe*, could he come back from the tomb! *hättet ihr doch meinen Rath befolgt*, had you followed my advice!—and the *Imperative* mood for the necessity enforced by the will of the speaker; e.g. *Sprich!* speak! *.

Observation.—Many other relations of reality are not expressed by those forms of inflection which are termed moods, but by auxiliary verbs of moods (§ 70); e.g. *er kann*, *er muß kommen*, he may, he must come;—or by adverbs of moods (§ 10); e.g. *wenn er kommt*, if he comes; *er kommt vielleicht*, he comes perhaps;—or by the construction of the sentence; e.g. *kommt er?* does he come? (§ 8.)

§ 72.

The relation of time is expressed by the *tenses* of the verb. An action expressed by the verb is, in point of time, either *present*, i. e. coinciding with, or *past*, i. e. antecedent to, or *future*, i. e. subsequent to, the present existence of the speaker. Tenses are *absolute* if they imply only relation to the presence of the speaker: as the present tense, *ich spreche*; the preterperfect tense, *ich habe gesprochen*; and the first future, *ich werde sprechen*:—they are *relative* if they imply at the same time a relation of time to some other event; as the imperfect tense, *ich sprach*; the pluperfect tense, *ich hatte gesprochen*; and the second future tense, *ich werde gesprochen haben*. The imperfect and pluperfect being employed in historical narrative, are moreover distinguished by the name of the *historical* tenses.

§ 73.

The personal forms of conjugation are the same in German as in English; but they have preserved their distinctive signs of inflection, which have been almost entirely lost in English; e. g. *ich red-e*, *du red-est*, *er red-et*, *wir red-en*, *ihr red-et*, *sie red-en*. The imperative mood has separate forms of conjugation only for the second person singular and plural; e. g. *red-e*, *red-et*.

* Grammatik, § 10.

§ 74.

Infinitives and participles do not express the notion of action in the relations of personality or reality to the speaker. Properly speaking, therefore, they are not so much forms or moods of the *verb* (§ 3), as rather verbal substantives and verbal adjectives, i. e. substantives and adjectives which, like verbs, admit of an objective relation (§ 32). We comprehend them under the term of *Participial forms*. They are admitted as supplementary forms in the conjugation of verbs, because they are employed in the construction of the compound tenses.

§ 75.

The participial infinitive, which must be distinguished from the substantive infinitive (§ 42), admits of no article and of no declension. There are two forms of infinitives:—a simple one, as *lieben*, *kommen*, for the present; and a compound one, as *geliebt haben*, *gekommen sein*, for the past time. The infinitive is employed in all forms of the verb compounded with the auxiliary verbs of mood, *können*, *dürfen*, &c. (§ 70): it concurs with the auxiliary verb of tense, *werden*, to form the future tenses; e. g. *er kann reden*, *er muß reden*, *er wird reden*, *er wird geredet haben*.

The infinitive used as a substantive is frequently employed as the subject of the sentence; e. g. *Geben ist seliger als Nehmen*, to give is more blessed than to take; *Borgen macht Sorgen*, borrowing makes sorrowing; *Wasser trinken ist gesund*, to drink water is wholesome*. The infinitive has the power of a governed case only when it stands with the verbs *heißen*, to order; *heißen* and *nennen*, to call; *helfen*, to help; *lehren*, to teach; *lernen*, to learn; e. g. *er hieß mich schweigen*, he ordered me to be silent; *daß heißt* (*heißt ich*, *nenne ich*) *Gott versuchen*, I call that to tempt God; *hilf mir arbeiten*, help me to work; *er lehrt oder lernt schreiben*, he teaches or learns writing. In particular expressions, however, the infinitive stands also after *haben* and *thun*; such are, *du hast gut reden*, it is easy for you

* *Sterben ist nichts; doch leben und nicht sehen, das ist ein Unglück. Sch.*
Handeln ist leicht, denken schwer, nach dem Gedachten handeln unbequem. Göthe.

to talk; er thut nichts als klagen, he does nothing but complain.

The infinitive, moreover, follows the verbs hören, to hear; sehen, to see; fühlen, to feel; finden, to find; machen, to make; bleiben, to remain; gehen, to go; fahren, to ride; reiten, to ride on horseback; in expressions like ich höre ihn sprechen (speaking); ich sehe ihn tanzen (dancing); ich fand ihn schlafen (sleeping); du machst mich lachen, you make me laugh; ich bleibe sitzen, I remain sitting; er geht betteln, he goes a begging; er fährt oder reitet spazieren, he takes an airing in a carriage or on horseback*. In these expressions the German present participle (sprechend, tanzend) has assumed the form of an infinitive.

After the auxiliary verb lassen, the infinitive of the active voice is always used, although the signification be passive; e. g. er läßt ein Buch einbinden, he orders a book to be bound; sie lassen den Dieb hängen, they order the thief to be hanged†.

§ 76.

When the infinitive is employed as a verbal substantive in an attributive or objective case, the relation distinguished by the inflection of a substantive is expressed by the preposition zu, to; e. g. die Gelegenheit zu sprechen, the occasion of speaking; der Wunsch zu gefallen, the desire of pleasing; gewohnt zu arbeiten, accustomed to work; er hofft zu gewinnen, he hopes to win: and this form of the infinitive we term the *Supine*. When the verb is a separable compound (§ 59), the preposition is placed between the separable component and the verb in the infinitive; e. g. er wünscht abzureisen, he wishes to set out; er bittet ihm beizustehn, he requests to assist him.

In general the infinitive (*without zu*) stands for the nominative case, and the supine (*with zu*) for all other cases of the verbal substantive. After the verbs heißen, nennen, helfen, lehren, lernen, haben, thun, however, the infinitive takes the

* Der Tod der Fliege heißt mich dichten. Gellert.

Er sieht sie erröthen, die schöne Gestalt, und sieht sie erbleichen und sinken hin. Sch.

Mit Grauen bleibt unser Ritter stehn. Wieland.

† Drei Tage nach einander ließ die Heilige sich sehn. Sch.

place of the supine (§ 75); and on the other hand, the supine is very often employed instead of the infinitive; e. g. ein Kind zu täuschen ist leicht, to deceive a child is easy; der Versuchung zu widerstehn ist schwer, to resist temptation is difficult. And the supine is always taken when the subject of the sentence, which is expressed, is placed after the verb, the indefinite pronoun es taking the place of the subject; e. g. es ist nicht gesund viel Wein zu trinken, it is not wholesome to drink much wine; es ist nützlich Sprachen zu lernen, it is useful to learn languages*.

Expressions compounded of the supine and of the verb haben or sein, always imply either relation of possibility; e. g. er hat viel Geld auszugeben, he has much money to spend; ein großer Preis ist zu gewinnen, a large prize is to be gained;—or the relation of necessity; e. g. er hat eine schwere Arbeit zu verrichten, he has a difficult task to perform; große Schulden sind noch zu bezahlen, great debts are still to be paid †. When the supine is connected in this way with the verb sein, it is to be regarded as the predicate of the sentence, but always has a passive signification. When it is turned into an attributive adjective, its termination en (zu lob-en) is changed into end (zu lob-end); and thus a participle is formed, which also expresses possibility or necessity in a passive sense; e. g. das auszugebende Geld, the money to be spent; der zu gewinnende Preis, the prize to be won; die zu verrichtende Arbeit, the task to be performed; die zu bezahlenden Schulden, the debts to be paid.

§ 77.

There are in German three Participles: viz. the *Present* participle, e. g. sprechend, speaking; lobend, praising;—the *Past* participle, e. g. gesprochen, spoken; gelobet, praised;—and the *Future* participle, formed from the supine (§ 76), e. g. zu sprechend,

* Ihnen steht es an so zart zu denken; meinem Schwager ziemts sich groß und fürstlich zu beweisen. Sch.

† Ich habe hier zu walten. Sch.—Was hast du hier zu hören und zu hören? Sch.—Was hast du hier zu fragen, zu verbieten? Sch.—Ich habe diesem Manne stilles Unrecht abzubitten. Sch.—Er ist nirgends anzutreffen. Sch.—Dies stolze Herz ist nicht zu brechen. Sch.—Kein Sternbild ist zu sehn. Sch.—Keine Zeit ist zu verlieren. Sch.—Hier ist das Mein und Dein, die Rache von der Schuld, nicht mehr zu sondern. Sch.

to be spoken ; *zu lobend*, to be praised. Though these participles have their distinctive names from tenses, they in general differ not so much in the relation of time which they express, as in their active or passive signification. The present participle has an active signification ; the past and the future participles, on the contrary, have a passive signification ; the future at the same time expressing possibility or necessity (§ 76) ; e. g. *der fragende Lehrer*, the examining teacher ; *der gefragte Schüler*, the scholar who is examined ; *der zu fragende Schüler*, the scholar to be examined, i. e. who may or must be examined ; *der hoffende Landwirth*, the hoping farmer ; *die gehoffte oder zu hoffende Ernte*, the harvest hoped for, or to be hoped for, i. e. which may be hoped for. The future participle is formed only from transitive verbs. The past participle is formed also from intransitive verbs ; in which case it has an active signification, and generally differs from the present participle only by the relation of time ; e. g. *der gefallene Schnee*, the snow which has fallen ; *die aufgegangene Sonne*, the sun which has risen ; compared with *der fallende Schnee*, the falling snow ; *die aufgehende Sonne*, the rising sun.

Conjugation.

§ 78.

Tenses are either *simple*, formed by the inflection of the verb itself ; or *compound*, compounded of a participial form, and of one of the auxiliary verbs of tenses. In German the present and imperfect only are simple tenses ; all others are compound. The inflection of the verb itself, e. g. *spr̄ng-en*, *red-en*, is effected either by changing the radical vowel (§ 31), as *spr̄ng*, or by terminations of conjugation, as *red-et-e*, or by both ways together, as *spr̄ng-et*. The indicative mood alone has the whole of the tenses enumerated in § 72 ; the conjunctive and conditional moods want the historical tenses (§ 72) ; and the imperative has only the present tense. The following table shows the moods, with their respective tenses arranged according to the relation of time expressed by the latter. Each tense is marked by the third person singular, the form of which is more distinctive than that of the other persons.

		MOODS.			PARTICIPIAL FORMS.	
		Indicative.	Conjunctive.	Conditional.	Imperative.	Infinitive. Participles.
Simple Tenses.	Present	er springt (he leaps)	er springe	er spränge	springe	springend
	Imperf.	er redet (he speaks)	er rede	er redete	rede	redend
		er sprang				
		er redete				
Compound Tenses.	Perfect	er ist gesprungen	er sei gesprungen	er wäre gesprungen		gesprungen sein
	Pluperf.	er hat geredet	er habe geredet	er hätte geredet		geredet haben
		er war gesprungen				gesprungen
		er hatte geredet				geredet
	1st Fut.	er wird springen	er werde springen	er würde springen		
	2nd Fut.	er wird reden	er werde reden	er würde reden		
		er wird gesprungen sein	er werde gesprungen sein	er würde gesprungen sein		
		er wird geredet haben	er werde geredet haben	er würde geredet haben		

§ 79.

In German, as in all Teutonic languages, there are two different modes of conjugation: viz. one for radical verbs, called the *Ancient* form; the other for derivative verbs, termed the *Modern* form of conjugation. Some radical verbs,—e. g. *wachen*, awake, awoke; *hüten*, hide, hid; *leiten*, lead, led; *suchen*, seek, sought; *streben*, strive, strove; *schweigen*, sweat; *wirken*, work, wrought,—have in modern German assumed the modern form: no derivative verb, on the contrary, is conjugated in the ancient form.

In the *modern* form, the imperfect tense and the past participle are formed by the termination *et*, to which in the imperfect tense the personal terminations are added: e. g. *red-et-e*, *ge-red-et*. The radical sounds of the verb are not altered.

In the *ancient* form, the imperfect tense and the past participle are formed by the change of the radical vowel (*Umlaut*, § 31), and the participle has the termination *en*. The first and third pers. sing. imperf. are without a termination: e. g. *ich sprang*, *er sprang*, *gesprungen* (from *sprang-en*). When a short radical vowel in consequence of being changed becomes long, or a long one becomes short, the final consonant also is altered according to that variation; e. g. in *reiten*, *ritt*, *geritten*; *leiden*, *litt*, *gelitten*; *sieden*, *sott*, *gesotten*; *fließen*, *floss*, *geflossen*; and in *schaffen*, *schuf*; *kommen*, *kam*; *bitten*, *bat* (§ 25, 27).

Some radical verbs have assumed in their conjugation the terminations appropriate to the modern form, but have preserved the change of the radical vowel peculiar to the ancient form. Such are, *bring-en*, *brach-te*, *gebracht*, to bring, brought; *denk-en*, *dach-te*, *gedacht*, to think, thought. As such verbs neither conform entirely with the ancient nor with the modern form of conjugation, they are distinguished by the denomination of *Irregular* verbs.

Observation.—The verbs of the ancient form were in the older German grammars classed with the irregular verbs: this principle, however, which is still adhered to in English grammar, has been generally rejected by the German grammarians of the present day, who maintain, that the conjugation of these verbs is as regular as that of verbs of the modern form. It is to be remarked, however, that the number of verbs really irregular, i. e. conjugated according to the ancient and modern forms mixed, is much

larger in English than in German; many verbs of the ancient form having in English adopted the modern form in part only, whilst in German they either have altogether adhered to the ancient, or have passed over completely to the modern form:—thus,

awake, <i>awoke, awaked,</i>	erwachen	} modern form.
seek, <i>sought, sought,</i>	suchen	
fly, <i>fled, fled,</i>	fliegen	} ancient form.
lade, <i>laded, laden,</i>	laden	

§ 80.

The ancient and the modern forms of conjugation do not differ in the terminations of personal forms, except in the first and third pers. sing. imperf. (§ 79), and in the imperative mood of many verbs of the first conjugation of the ancient form (see § 82). The simple tenses of the conjunctive and imperative moods are formed from the corresponding tenses of the indicative, from which they are distinguished only by the terminations of the personal forms. The present conditional is formed from the imperfect indicative, the changed vowel of which in the ancient form is always modified (§ 24) in the present conditional. The personal terminations of the plural number are the same in all moods and tenses: viz. *en* for the first and third, and *et* for the second person.

The personal terminations of the singular number in the simple tenses of both forms of conjugation are seen in the following scheme:—

Present.				
Sing.	Indicative.	Conjunctive.	Conditional.	Imperat.
1.				
2.	{ anc. <i>sprang=</i> mod. <i>red=</i>	{ <i>sprang=</i> <i>red=</i>	{ <i>spräng=</i> <i>red=et=</i>	{ <i>sprang=</i> <i>red=</i>
3.	{ <i>e</i> <i>est</i> <i>et</i>	{ <i>e</i> <i>est</i> <i>e</i>	{ <i>e</i> <i>est</i> <i>e</i>	{ — <i>e</i> —
Imperfect (Indicative).				
1.				
2.	{ anc. <i>sprang=</i> mod. <i>red=et=</i>			{ <i>e</i> <i>est</i> <i>e</i>
3.	{ — <i>est</i> —			

In the terminations *est* (*spring:est*) and *et* (*spring:et*, *gelieb:et*), the vowel *e* may be dropped for the sake of eurythmy (§ 17), whenever euphony (§ 30) permits it (*springst*, *springt*, *geliebt*): and the vowel is *commonly* dropped in the termination *et*, when another termination follows; e. g. in *lieb:et:e*, *gelieb:et:er*. Generally, euphony does not allow the vowel to be dropped between *st* and any final lingual consonant, nor between *t* and a final *d* or *t*; e. g. in *reit:est*, *speis:est*, *fisch:est*, *beis:est*, *tanz:est*, and in *find:et*, *reit:et*, *gekleid:et*, *geblut:et*. If it is not contrary to this rule, the vowel *e* is almost always dropped in the second and third pers. sing. pres. cf verbs of the ancient conjugation, in which the vowel is short, and the final consonant any other but an augmented liquid (§ 29); e. g. in *sprichst*, *spricht*, *fällst*, *fällt*. In *gilt*, *schilt*, *tritt*, *birst*, *fichst*, *sicht*, *fluchst*, *flucht*, *brät*, *hält*, *räth*, from *gelten*, *schelten*, *treten*, *bersten*, *sechten*, *flech:ten*, &c. not only *e* but the final *t* is lost in the *t* of the termination. The verb *werden* has second and third pers. sing. pres. *wirft* and *wird*.

In those derivative verbs which have the termination *eln* (*el:en*) or *ern* (*er:en*) in the infinitive, the vowel *e* of the termination of derivation (*el*, *er*) is dropped in the first pers. sing. pres.; e. g. *ich hand:l:e*, I act; *ich wand:l:e*, I walk; *ich wand:r:e*, I wander: whilst the vowel *e* of the termination of inflection is dropped in all other forms; e. g. *hand:el:t*, *hand:el:ten*, *gehand:el:t*, *hand:el:nd*, *hand:el:n*, *wand:er:t*, *wand:er:t:est*, *gewand:er:t*, *wand:er:nd*.

Ancient form of Conjugation.

§ 81.

The ancient form of conjugation admits of many varieties, depending on the difference of the radical vowel, and of its changes in the formation of the imperfect tense and past participle. All verbs of this form, however, may be classed into *three conjugations*. The *first* comprehends the verbs having the radical vowel *i*, as *finden*, as well as those in which this vowel has been changed for its secondary vowel *e* (*ä* or *ö*); e. g. *lesen*, *brechen*, *rähen*, *löschén*; the original forms of which were *lisan*, *brisan*, &c. (§ 23). The radical vowel (*i*, *e*, *ä*, *ö*) is

ing
ind
ink

e a

changed in the imperfect tense into *a*, which however in many verbs has passed into its secondary vowel *o*; and in the past participle into *u*, which in many verbs has passed into *o*, and in others into *e*; e. g. *finden*, *fund*, *gefunden*; *schwimmen*, *schwamm*, *geschwommen*; *biegen*, *bog*, *gebogen*; *lesen*, *las*, *gelesen*. A great majority of radical verbs belong to this conjugation.

In verbs of the *second* conjugation the radical vowel is represented by the diphthong *ei*, which originally was *long i*; e. g. *beißen*, *reiten*; Anglo-Saxon *bitan*, *pidan*, Engl. *to bite*, *to ride*: the diphthong *ei* is in the imperfect tense, as well as in the past participle, changed into *i*.

Verbs of the *third* conjugation have the radical vowels *a*, *au* (*o*), or *u*, which in the imperfect are changed either into *i* (*ie*) or into *u*, but undergo no change at all in the past participle.

Each of these three conjugations is subdivided according to the different changes of the radical vowel.

Verbs, however, are arranged in the different conjugations, not so much according to the present form of their radical vowel, as according to the manner in which that vowel is changed. Thus we have said that the radical vowel of the first conjugation is *i* (*e*, *ä*, *ö*); but that conjugation also contains the verbs *kommen*, *saufen*, *saugen*, *schmauchen*, *schrauben*, *schroten*, *lügen*, *trügen*. Their radical vowel originally was *i*, as still appears from Goth. *quiman*, Engl. *to sip*, *to lie*, &c. The third conjugation in the same manner contains *gehen*, *stehen*, *heißen*, because these verbs make *ging* *gegangen*, *stand* *gestanden*, *hieß* *geheißen*: their radical vowels originally were *a*; *gan*, *stan*, (Engl. *go*, *stand*).

N.B. There are no verb whose radical vowel was *e*. § 82.

In the first conjugation the changed vowel of the imperfect tense and past participle has the same quantity as the radical vowel: except in *bat*, *gebeten*, *brach*, *erschraf*, *aß*, *fraß*, *kam*, *maß*, *saß*, *sprach*, *stach*, *traf*, *vergaß*, in which a short radical vowel has been changed into a long one; and in *floß* *geflossen*, *genoß* *genossen*, *froch* *gefrochen*, *roch* *gerochen*, *soß* *geossen*, *schoß* *geschossen*, *schloß* *geschlossen*, *setzt* *gesetzt*, *sprach* *gesprochen*, *ver-*

droß verdressen, and genommen, in which a long radical vowel has been exchanged for a short one.

In those verbs of the first conjugation which have adopted a secondary *e* (*a*, *ö*) for their radical vowel, the primary vowel *i* has been retained in the second and third pers. sing. pres. indic., and in the singular of the imperative mood, the termination of which (*e*) is dropped in these verbs; e.g. *ich breche*, *du brichst*, *er bricht*, *brich*; *ich werfe*, *du wirfst*, *er wirft*, *wirf*; *ich lese*, *du liest*, *er liest*, *lies*. The verbs *genesen*, *bewegen*, *gähren*, *heben*, *welken*, *pflegen*, *scheren*, *schwären*, and *schwören*, are however exceptions to this rule; e.g. *ich bewege*, *du bewegest*, *er bewege*, *er bewege*, *bewege*.

In ancient German most verbs of this conjugation adopted in the plural of the imperfect the changed vowel of the past participle; e.g. *ich helfe*, *ich half*, *wir hulfen*, *gehulfen*; *ich gelte*, *ich galt*, *wir golt*, *gegolt*. The present conditional was in these verbs formed from the plural, and not from the singular, of the imperfect; which has given rise to the conditional forms *ich hülf*, *stülf*, *verdülf*, *wülf*, *wülf*, *wülf*, and *ich begünne*, *begünne*, *empfehle*, *börste*, *gölte*, *besünne*, *gerünne*, *schölte*, *spünne*, *stöhle*, which have remained in use; as also to the forms *gewünne*, *schwünne*, *hübe*, *stünde*, which are still employed along with *gewänne*, *schwänne*, *höbe*, *stände*.

The first conjugation contains the following verbs:—

First subdivision.

18

ing
ind
ind

in⁷

i

a

u

singen

sang

gesungen.

binden, to bind.

schwinden, to disappear.

dingen, to bargain.

schwingen, to swing.

dringen, to press.

singen, to sing.

finden, to find.

sinken, to sink.

gelingen, to succeed.

springen, to spring.

flingen, to sound.

stinken, to stink.

ringen, to wring, to struggle.

trinken, to drink.

schinden, to flay.

winden, to wind.

schlingen, to wind, to swallow.

zwingen, to force.

Observation.—The imperfect tenses of *dingen* and *schinden* are *dung*, *schund*.

Second subdivision. 2^a

i, e (a)	a	o
spinnen	spann	gespinnen.
brechen	brach	gebrochen.
befehlen, to command.	sichelten, to chide.	
beginnen, to begin.	schwimmen, to swim.	
bergen, to conceal.	sinnen, to think.	
bersten, to burst.	spinnen, to spin.	
brechen, to break.	sprechen, to speak.	
empfehlen, to recommend.	stechen, to sting.	
*erschrecken, to be frightened.	stehlen, to steal.	
gebären, to bring forth.	sterben, to die.	
gelten, to be worth.	treffen, to hit.	
gewinnen, to win.	verderben, to destroy.	
helfen, to help.	werben, to sue.	
*kommen, to come.	*werden, to become.	
nehmen, to take.	werfen, to throw.	
rennen, to run.		

Observation.—*Erschrecken* is conjugated in the ancient form only in the intransitive signification of *to be frightened*, but not in the transitive of *to frighten*. For the verb *femmen*, the personal forms *du fömmst*, *er fömmt*, as well as *du femmst*, *er femmt*, are employed. The form *wurd*, for the imperfect of *werden*, is rather antiquated: *wurde* is more common.

Third subdivision. 3^a

i (ie, ii) e (ä, ë, au)	o	o
glimmen	glomm	geglommen.
fechten	fecht	gefechten.
*besleimmen, to straiten.	fliehen, to flee. —	
*bewegen, to induce.	fließen, to flow. —	
biegen, to bend. —	frieren, to freeze. —	
bieten, to bid. —	gähren, to ferment. à	
dreschen, to thrash. 2 ^a	genießen, to enjoy.	
fechten, to fight. 2 ^a	gießen, to pour.	
flechten, to twist. 2 ^a	glimmen, to shine.	
fliegen, to fly. —	heben, to lift up.	

* fiesen, to choose. —	schrauben, to snort. —
flimmen, to climb. i"	schrauben, to screw. —
friechen, to creep. —	* schroten, to bruise. —
erlöschen } to be extinguished.	schwären, to fester. ä
verlöschen }	* schwellen, to swell. ä e"
lügen, to tell lies. —	* schwören, to swear. —
* melken, to milk. —	sieden, to boil. —
* pflegen, to practise.	sprießen, to sprout. —
quellen, to spring up. e"	stieben, to disperse. —
* rächen, to revenge. ä	triefen, to drop. —
riechen, to smell. —	trügen, to deceive. —
saufen, to drink. eu	verdrießen, to grieve. —
saugen, to suck. eu	verhehlen, to conceal. e"
* schallen, to sound. —	verlieren, to lose. —
scheren, to shear.	* verwirren, to confuse. i"
schieben, to shove. —	wägen (erwägen) to weigh. ä
schießen, to shoot. —	* weben, to weave. }
schließen, to shut. —	wiegen, to weigh. —
* schmelzen, to melt. e"	* ziehen, to pull. —

Observation 1.—From *beklemmen*, *rächen*, *schreten*, and *verwirren*, the past participles only are now made in the ancient form. The imperfect of *melken* is made in the modern form as well as in the ancient. In *weben* the ancient form of conjugation is rather antiquated, and occurs only in poetry. From the verb *hehlen*, only the compound *unverhehlen* (without disguise) now exists. *Schallen* is conjugated in the ancient form only in the compounds *erschallen* to resound, and *verschallen* to cease to sound. *Bewegen* is conjugated in the ancient form only in the signification of *to induce, to engage*, and *pflegen* only in the signification of *to perform, to practise*; e. g. *eines Amtes pflegen*, to perform an office; but not in that of *to be used* and *to take care*. When *schwellen* implies *to make swell*, it is conjugated in the modern form. Of *schmelzen* to melt, when its signification is transitive, the modern form occurs in the second and third pers. sing. pres. *schmelzest*, *schmelzet*. For the imperfect of *schwören* there are two forms, *schwur* and *schwer*. In *ziehen* the final *h* is changed into *g*, so as to form *zog*, *gezogen*: and in *erriesen* the final *s* is changed into *r*, to form *erfer*, *erferen*.

Observation 2.—The verbs of this subdivision, which have the long vowel *i* (*ie*), formerly took the diphthong *eu* in the second and third pers. sing. pres. and sing. imperat.: e. g. *keugst*, *keugt*, *keugt*, *keust*, *fleugst*, *fleugt*, *fleug*, which are now antiquated, and occur only in poetry; e. g. *was da freucht und fleucht* (*Sch.*), what there creeps and flies.

Fourth subdivision. 13

i, e, ie	a	e
bitten	bat	gebeten.
lesen	laß	gelesen.

bitten, to beg.	lesen, to read.
* essen, to eat.	liegen, to lie.
fressen, to feed (<i>intransit.</i>)	maßen, to measure.
geben, to give.	sehen, to see.
genesen, to recover (from illness).	* sitzen, to sit.
geschehen, to be done.	treten, to tread.
	vergessen, to forget.

Observation.—The verb *essen* has the anomalous participle *gegessen*. In *sitzen*, *saß*, *gesehen*, the final consonant of the verb is altered.

§ 83.

The *Second* conjugation is subdivided according as the diphthong *ei* is changed into short *i* or long *i* (*ie*).

First subdivision. 22

ei	i (short)	i (short)
reiten	ritt	geritten.

befleissen, to apply oneself.	reiten, to ride.
> beißen, to bite.	schleichen, to sneak.
erbleichen, to grow pale.	* schleifen, to grind.
gleichen, to resemble.	schleißen, to slit.
gleiten, to glide.	schmeißen, to fling.
greifen, to take hold.	schneiden, to cut.
feisen, to chide.	schreiten, to march.
fneifen, to pinch.	streichen, to strike.
leiden, to suffer.	streiten, to dispute.
pfeifen, to whistle.	* weichen, to yield.
reißen, to tear.	

Observation.—When *schleifen* implies *to drag*, it is conjugated in the modern form. The same applies to *bleichen* when it means *to bleach*, and to *weichen* when it means *to make soft*.

> *weichen*

Second subdivision.

	ei	ie	ie
	bleiben	blieb	geblieben.
b	bleiben, to remain.	schreiben, to write.	
h	deihen, to prosper.	schreien, to cry.	
d	leihen, to lend.	schweigen, to be silent.	
s	meiden, to shun.	speien, to spit.	
n	preisen, to praise.	steigen, to ascend.	
r	reiben, to rub.	treiben, to push, to drive.	
g	scheiden, to part.	weisen, to show.	
	scheinen, to shine.	zeihen, to accuse of.	

§ 84.

The *Third* conjugation also is subdivided, according as the radical vowel is in the imperfect tense changed into ie or into u. In the past participle the radical vowel is not changed. In the second and third pers. sing. pres. indic. the vowel a is modified into ä, o into ö, and au into äu: except in laden, schaffen, hauen.

First subdivision.

	a, au (o, u)	ie	a, au (o, u)
	fallen	fiel	gefallen.
	laufen	lief	gelaufen.
s	blasen, to blow.	lassen, to let, to leave.	
f	braten, to roast.	laufen, to run.	
ll	fallen, to fall.	rathen, to advise.	
ng	fangen, to catch.	rufen, to call.	
†	gehen, to go.	* salzen, to salt.	
h	halten, to hold.	schlafen, to sleep.	
ll	hängen, to hang.	* spalten, to split.	
†	hauen, to cut.	stoßen, to push.	
ss	heißen, to call.		

Second subdivision. 12

a	u	a
ſchlagen	ſchlug	geſchlagen.
bäcken, to bake.	ſchaffen, to create.	
fahren, to move.	ſchlagen, to beat.	
fragen, to ask.	ſtehen, to stand.	
graben, to dig.	tragen, to bear.	
laden, to load.	wachſen, to grow.	
* malen, to grind.	waſchen, to wash.	

Observation 1.—Gehen and ſtehen (§ 81) have in the imperfect tense ging, ſtand; and for the participles, gegangen, geſtanden. The imperfect of bauen is hieb. From ſalten, ſalzen, ſpalten, maſen, only the participles geſalten, geſalzen, geſpalten, gemalen, are now made in the ancient form. From fragen only the imperfect frug is in the ancient form, instead of which fragte is also employed. The verb ſchaffen is conjugated in the ancient form only in the ſignification of *to create*, and not in that of *to work*.

Observation 2.—Heirathen, to marry; berathſchlagen, to deliberate; veranlaſſen, to occasion; and willfahren, to comply; being derivatives of Heirath, Rathſchlag, Anlaß, &c., are conjugated in the modern form.

Modern form of Conjugation.

§ 85.

There is only one conjugation of the modern form which originally comprehends all derivative verbs, but has been adopted in modern German by many radical verbs also. All simple tenses and the participial forms of this conjugation are made by means of the terminations indicated in § 79, 80, without any change of radical sounds.

The verb haben must be classed as belonging to this conjugation. The anomaly in the conjugation of this verb is limited to the indicative and conditional moods, and consists merely in the contraction of the terminations with the verb; e. g. in hat, hatte, from habet, habete; and in the modification of the vowel in the conditional mood. Thus,

<i>Indicative.</i>		<i>Conditional.</i>
Present.	Imperf.	Present.
Sing. 1. <i>habe.</i>	1. <i>hatte.</i>	Sing. 1. <i>hätte.</i>
2. <i>hast.</i>	2. <i>hatteſt.</i>	2. <i>hätteſt.</i>
3. <i>hat.</i>	3. <i>hatte.</i>	3. <i>hätte.</i>
Plur. 1. <i>haben.</i>	1. <i>hatten.</i>	Plur. 1. <i>hätten.</i>
2. <i>habet.</i>	2. <i>hattet.</i>	2. <i>hättet.</i>
3. <i>haben.</i>	3. <i>hatten.</i>	3. <i>hätten.</i>

The conjunctive and imperative, as well as the participial forms, are quite regular.

Irregular Conjugation.

§ 86.

The verbs *bringen*, to bring; *brennen*, to burn; *denken*, to think; *fennen*, to know; *nennen*, to name; *rennen*, to run; *ſenden*, to send; *wenden*, to turn; have in the imperfect tense and past participle the termination appropriate to the modern form of conjugation, the radical vowel being at the same time changed into *a*; e. g. *brennen*, *brannte*, *gebrannt*; *fennen*, *fannte*, *gefannt*. The conditional mood of these verbs has the same vowel as the infinitive; e. g. *brennte*, *ſendete*: *bringen* and *denken*, however, have in the conditional the modified vowel of the imperfect tense, the final consonant being also altered into *ch*; e. g. *bringen*, *brachte*, *brächte*, *gebracht*; *denken*, *dachte*, *dächte*, *gedacht*.

The verb *thun* (*thuen*), to do, has imperfect *thät*, conditional *thäte*, and past participle *gethan*. The verb *gönnen* is conjugated in a regular way, according to the modern form of conjugation; only the irregular forms *gonnte* for the imperfect, and *gegonnt* for the past participle, are also employed.

The auxiliary verbs *dürfen*, *können*, *mögen*, *müssen*, *sollen*, *wollen* (§ 70), and the verb *wissen*, to know, form their present tense by a change of vowel, and without any termination in the first and third pers. sing.: *darf*, *kann*, *mag*, *muß*, *soll*, *will*, and *weiß*. These forms are originally imperfect tenses, made according to the ancient form of conjugation, which, like the Latin *odi* and *memini*, have assumed the signification of the

present. New forms have accordingly been made for the imperfect tenses, which, as well as the past participle, have the terminations of the modern form with a change of the radical vowel. In the conditional mood the vowel of the imperfect is changed, except in *wollen* and *sollen*. The conjunctive mood is regularly formed from the infinitive. The conjugation of these verbs, accordingly, is as follows:—

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Indicative.</i>			<i>Conjunct.</i>	<i>Condit.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
	<i>Present.</i>		<i>Imperfect.</i>			
	1	2	3			
dürfen	darf	darfst	darf	dürfte	dürfte	gedurft.
können	kann	kannst	kann	konnte	könnte	gekonnt.
mögen	mag	magst	mag	mochte	möchte	gemocht.
müssen	muß	mußt	muß	mußte	müßte	gemußt.
sollen	soll	sollst	soll	sollte	sollte	gesollt.
wollen	will	willst	will	wollte	wollte	gewollt.
wissen	weiß	weißt	weiß	wußte	wüßte	gewußt.

§ 87.

The conjugation of the verb *sein**, to be, is in German, as in other languages, compounded of different verbs, and therefore irregular. The following are the forms of the present tense in the indicative, conjunctive, and imperative moods:—

<i>Indicative.</i>		<i>Conjunctive.</i>		<i>Imperative.</i>		<i>Participial forms.</i>
S.	Pl.	S.	Pl.	S.	Pl.	
1. bin	sind	sei	seien			Inf. sein (wesen).
2. bist	seid	seiest	seiet	sei	seid	Pres. Part. seiend (wesend).
3. ist	sind	sei	seien			Past Part. gewesen.

The infinitive of the verb *wesen* occurs only as a substantive (§ 42) signifying a being; its present participle *wesend* is only employed in the compounds *anwesend*, present, and *abwesend*, absent. The pres. part. *seiend* also is scarcely ever used.

The Augment of Past Participles.

§ 88.

The past participles commonly have the augment *ge* (§ 29); e. g. *ge-sprochen*, *ge-lobt*. When, however, in verbs of two or

* It is by some spelt *fenn*.

more syllables, the first syllable is unaccented, or has the subordinate accent, eurythmy does not permit them to take an augment (§ 17). The following verbs, therefore, do not admit of the augment in the formation of the past participle:—

1.) Verbs of foreign origin which have the termination *iren* (§ 19); e. g. *studiren*, to study; *regiren*, to rule; *marschiren*, to march. The same applies to *hausiren*, to hawk goods (from *Haus*).

2.) All verbs which have already the augment; e. g. *gefallen*, *genießen*, *gehören*;—or are compounds with prefixes; e. g. *besuchen*, to visit; *erlangen*, to obtain; *verlieren*, to lose; *entgehen*, to escape; *zerstören*, to destroy; *hintergehen*, to deceive; *übersetzen*, to translate; *unternehmen*, to undertake; *umarmen*, to embrace; *widerstehen*, to resist; *wiederholen*, to repeat; *mißfallen*, to displease; *vollenden*, to achieve (§ 59).

In separable compound verbs (§ 59) the augment is placed between the separable component and the verb; e. g. *an-gefallen*, attacked; *ab-ge-schrieben*, copied; *zu-ge-schlossen*, locked up. This rule, however, must not be applied to verbs made from compound substantives or adjectives; as, *antworten* (from *Antwort*), to answer; *argwöhnen* (from *Argwohn*), to suspect; *frohlocken*, to exult; *frühstücken*, to breakfast; *handhaben*, to manage; *liebkoßen*, to caress; *liebäugeln*, to ogle; *mißbilligen*, to disapprove; *mißbrauchen*, to abuse; *mißheirathen*, to marry below one's rank; *muthmaßen*, to suppose; *quacksalbern*, to quack; *rathschlagen*, to deliberate; *rechtfertigen*, to justify; *urtheilen*, to judge; *wallfahrten*, to go a pilgrimage; *wetteifern*, to rival; *wetterleuchten*, to lighten; *weissagen*, to prophecy; and some others; in the participles of which the augment is placed before the whole compound; e. g. *geantwortet*, *geargwöhnt*. The participles of *offenbaren*, to reveal, and *willfahren*, to comply, admit of no augment, because the components *offen* and *will* have the subordinate accent.

The augmented participles of the auxiliary verbs *dürfen*, *können*, *mögen*, *müssen*, *sollen*, *wollen*, *lassen*, are only employed when they are not accompanied by another verb, i. e. when the verb connected with the auxiliary verb is omitted; e. g. *ich habe gewollt, aber ich habe nicht gekonnt*, I have been willing, but I have not been able (to do a thing). When, on the other hand,

the infinitive of the other verb is expressed, the augment is omitted, and the participle assumes the form of the infinitive (*dürfen, können, mögen, &c.*); e. g. *ich habe mit ihm sprechen wollen, aber ich habe ihn nicht finden können*, I have wished to speak with him, but I have not been able to find him; *er hat sich zurückziehen müssen*, he has been obliged to retire; *er hat nicht bleiben dürfen*, he has not been permitted to stay. In the same way the participles of the verbs *heißen, to order; helfen, to help; hören, to hear; sehen, to see; lehren, to teach; lernen, to learn; machen, to make*; connected with the infinitive of another verb (§ 75), assume the form of an infinitive; e. g. *wer hat dich gehen heißen?* who ordered thee to part? *ich habe ihm arbeiten helfen*, I have assisted him to work; *ich habe ihn singen hören*, I have heard him singing; *er hat mich tanzen lehren*, he has taught me dancing*.

Observation.—Verbs compounded with the prefix *miß*, being of the description of inseparable compound verbs, cannot take an augment in the participle either before or after *miß*; and forms like *mißgedeutet, mißgegriffen*, are rather incorrect. The augment occurs however in *mißgeschaffen* and *mißgebildet*, which therefore must be considered as compounds of the adverb *miß* with the participles used adjectively, and not as the participles of *mißschaffen, &c.*

Compound Tenses.

§ 89.

The compound *past* tenses are, as in English, made by compounding the past participle with one of the auxiliary verbs, *haben* or *sein* (§ 70). Thus the present tense of the auxiliary verbs forms the perfect, and the imperfect forms the pluperfect tense of the verb; e. g. *ich habe geredet, ich bin gekommen*; and *ich hatte geredet, ich war gekommen*. The past infinitive is compounded of the same participle and the infinitive of the auxiliary verb; e. g. *geredet haben, gekommen sein*.

The *future* tenses are made by compounding the present tense of the auxiliary verb *werden* with the infinitive of the verb, viz. with the present infinitive for the first future, and

* *Ich habe mich an viel gewöhnen lernen. Sch.*
Ihr habt die Feinde Englands kennen lernen. Sch.
Ihr habt sie unter euch aufwachsen sehen. Sch.

with the past infinitive for the second future; e. g. *ich werde reden, ich werde kommen*; and *ich werde geredet haben, ich werde gekommen sein*.

In compound tenses the participial forms are not inflected.

When physical or moral necessity or possibility of an action asserted is expressed by one of the auxiliary verbs *dürfen, können, mögen, müssen*, &c. (§ 70), the tenses made by the auxiliary verbs of mood stand with the present infinitive of the other verbs; e. g. *er hat nicht tanzen können*, he has not been able to dance; *er hat nicht sprechen dürfen*, he has not been permitted to speak; *er hätte tanzen können*, he would have been able to dance; *er hätte tanzen müssen*, he would have been obliged to dance*. In this respect the German differs from the English idiom, in which in such cases the auxiliary verb frequently stands in the imperfect, whilst the other verb is in the past participle; e. g. *he might have danced* (as it were, *posset saltavisse*), instead of *er hätte tanzen können* (*potuisset saltare*); *you could have prevented this* (*posses impedivisse*), instead of *sie hätten das verhindern können*; *you ought to have prevented him* (*deberes impedivisse*), instead of *sie hätten das verhindern sollen* (*debuisses impedire*). In German, the present and imperfect tenses of the auxiliary verbs of mood do not stand with the past participles of other verbs, except when a logical possibility or necessity of the assertion (probability or conjecture) is expressed (§ 70); e. g. *er könnte* or *möchte mich verrathen haben*, it might be that he had betrayed me; *wenn er sollte mich verrathen haben*, if he could have betrayed me.

§ 90.

The passive voice is compounded of the past participle and the auxiliary verb *werden*, and its conjugation is effected purely by conjugating the auxiliary verb through all its tenses, simple and compound, and through all moods. In the imperfect tense the form *wurde* (not *ward*, § 82) is always employed; and in the perfect and pluperfect tenses the participle *werden* is without augment (§ 88); e. g. *ich werde gelobt, er wurde gelobt, ich*

* Man hätte diesen Wabington und Lishburn ihr in Person vorstellen, Ihre Schreiber ihr gegenüber stellen sollen. Sch.

bin gelobt worden, ich wäre gelobt worden, ich werde gelobt werden.

§ 91.

The perfect and pluperfect tenses of all transitive and reflexive verbs (§ 65) are made by means of the auxiliary verb *haben*; but of those intransitive verbs which have not the reflexive form, many assume in these tenses the auxiliary verb *sein*, whilst others take *haben*. The signification of the verb generally determines which of them is employed. The following always assume *sein*.

1.) Those intransitive verbs which imply a change and transition from one state into another; e. g.—

bersten, to burst.	heilen, to heal.
brechen, to break.	reifen, to ripen.
deihen, to prosper.	schmelzen, to melt.
faulen, to putrefy.	schwären, to fester.
frieren, to freeze.	schwellen, to swell.
gelingen, to succeed.	schwinden, to disappear.
genesen, to recover.	sprießen, to sprout.
gerathen, to come, to fall.	sterben, to die.
gerinnen, to coagulate.	wachsen, to grow.
geschehen, to happen.	werden, to become.

2.) Those which imply motion from one place to another; e. g.—

dringen, to press.	fommen, to come.
eilen, to hasten.	friechen, to creep.
fahren, to move.	landen, to land.
fallen, to fall.	laufen, to run.
fliegen, to fly.	quellen, to spring (water).
fliehen, to flee.	reisen, to travel.
fließen, to flow.	reiten, to ride.
gehen, to go.	rennen, to run.
gelangen, to arrive.	rinnen, to flow.
gleiten, to slide.	rücken, to move.
hinfen, to halt.	scheiden, to part.
jagen, to run with haste.	schießen, to shoot.
klettern, to climb.	schiffen, to sail.
klimmen, to climb.	schleichen, to sneak.

schlüpfen, to slip.	streichen, to move swiftly.
schreiten, to stride.	stürzen, to tumble.
schwimmen, to swim.	treiben, to drive.
segeln, to sail.	treten, to step.
sinken, to sink.	umherirren, to rove about.
springen, to leap.	wandern, to wander.
steigen, to rise.	waten, to wade.
stoßen, to push.	weichen, to yield.
straucheln, to stumble.	ziehen, to move, to pass.

3.) The verb *sein*, to be. In German, as in Italian, the perfect and pluperfect tenses of *sein* are formed by means of the same verb; e. g. *ich bin gewesen, ich war gewesen*.

Radical and derivative verbs, which by themselves require the auxiliary *haben*, assume the auxiliary *sein*, whenever in consequence of their being compounded with prefixes (e. g. *er, ver, ent*; and separable adverbs, e. g. *an, aus, auf, in (ein), auß*), they come to express a transition from one state or condition into another, or a motion from one place to another; e. g. *erstaunen*, to be astonished; *erscheinen*, to make one's appearance; *ertrinken*, to be drowned; *verschallen*, to cease sounding; *erwachen* and *aufwachen*, to awake; *entschlafen* and *einschlafen*, to fall asleep; *verdunsten*, to evaporate; *verhungern*, to starve with hunger; *verbrennen* and *aufbrennen*, to be consumed by fire; *verblühen*, to decay; *aufblühen*, to blossom, &c. The verbs, on the other hand, *eilen, fließen, hinfen, jagen, flettern, friechen, landen, laufen, quellen, reisen, reiten, rinnen, segeln, schiffen, schwimmen, springen, stoßen, wandern*, take the auxiliary verb *haben*, when they imply not a motion from one place to another, but merely a particular kind of motion; e. g. *in er hat viel gereiset*, he has travelled very much; *er hat lange gehinkt*, he has been limping a long while; *er hat diesen Morgen geritten*, he has taken a ride this morning; *wir haben eine ganze Stunde geschwommen*, we swam a whole hour; *er hat ausgeklettert, ausgesprungen, ausgeritten, ausgereiset*, he has done climbing, leaping, riding, travelling. (§ 63. Obs. 3.)

The following intransitive verbs require the auxiliary verb *haben*:—

1.) Those which govern a case or a preposition ; e. g. einem dienen, gehorchen, to serve, to obey one ; einem gefallen, to please one ; einer Sache gedenken, vergessen, to remember, to forget something ; über einen spotten, to mock one. However, einem begegnen, folgen, weichen, to meet, to follow, to yield to one, assume sein.

2.) Those which express the production of sounds and of other impressions upon the external senses ; e. g. ächzen, to groan ; bellen, to bark ; brüllen, to bellow ; brausen, to roar ; duften, to scent ; glänzen, to shine ; glühen, to glow ; klingen, tönen, lauten, schallen, to sound ; riechen, to smell ; schmecken, to taste ; schreien, to cry ; scheinen, to shine ; seufzen, to sigh ; stinken, to stink ; weinen, to weep, &c.

3.) Those which imply a permanent state or condition ; e. g. beben, to tremble ; blühen, to flourish ; bluten, to bleed ; darben, to starve ; dauern, to last ; fehlen, to want ; gähren, to ferment ; hängen, to hang ; irren, to err ; leben, to live ; leiden, to suffer ; liegen, to lie ; ruhen, to rest ; sitzen, to sit ; schlafen, to sleep ; schweigen, to be silent ; stehen, to stand ; streiten, to struggle ; wachen, to wake ; weilen, to delay ; wohnen, to dwell, &c. However, bleiben, to stay, to remain, requires the auxiliary verb sein.

4.) The impersonal verbs ; e. g. es regnet, it rains ; es schneiet, it snows ; es blizt, it lightens, &c.

5.) All auxiliary verbs of mood (§ 70).

Observation.—There are some verbs which assume sein in one signification, and haben in another ; e. g. ich bin fortgefahren, I went off ; and ich habe fortgefahren zu lesen, I have continued reading ; der Baum ist ausgeschlagen, the tree has pushed forth leaves ; die Sache ist gut ausgeschlagen, the business has turned out well ; and das Pferd hat ausgeschlagen, the horse has kicked ; ich bin zu ihm gestoßen, I joined him ; ich bin auf ihn gestoßen, I met him ; and ich habe an einen Stein gestoßen, I have hit against a stone ; ich habe gefroren, I have been cold ; and das Wasser ist gefroren, the water is frozen ; ich bin gejagt, I have run fast ; and ich habe gejagt, I have hunted.

§ 92.

The whole of the conjugation of verbs is explained by the following specimen of the ancient and modern forms of conjugation, including the passive voice.

Ancient form of Conjugation.

	<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Conjunctive.</i>	<i>Conditional.</i>
	Present Tense.		
Sing.	ich springe, I spring	ich springe	ich sprünge
	du springest (springst)	du springest	du sprüngest
	er (sie, es) springet (springt)	er springe	er sprünge
Plur.	wir springen	wir springen	wir sprüngen
	ihr springet (springt)	ihr springet	ihr sprünget
	sie springen.	sie springen.	sie sprüngen.

	Imperfect Tense.	
Sing.	ich sprang	
	du sprangest (sprangst)	
	er sprang	
Plur.	wir sprangen	
	ihr spranget	
	sie sprangen.	

Perfect Tense.								
S. ich bin	}	gesprungen.	ich sei	}	gesprungen.	ich wäre	}	gesprungen.
du bist			du seiest (seist)			du wärest		
er ist			er sei			er wäre		
P. wir sind	}	gesprungen.	wir seien	}	gesprungen.	wir wären	}	gesprungen.
ihr seid			ihr seiet			ihr wäret		
sie sind			sie seien			sie wären		

	Pluperfect Tense.	
S. ich war	} gesprungen.	
du warst		
er war		
P. wir waren	}	
ihr wäret		
sie waren		

First Future Tense.					
S. ich werde	}	springen.	ich werde	}	springen.
du wirst			du werdest		
er wird			er werde		
P. wir werden	}	springen.	wir werden	}	springen.
ihr werdet			ihr werdet		
sie werden			sie werden		

Second Future Tense.					
S. ich werde	} gesprungen sein.	ich werde	} gesprungen sein.	ich würde	} gesprungen sein.
du wirst		du werdest		du würdest	
er wird		er werde		er würde	
P. wir werden	}	wir werden	}	wir würden	}
ihr werdet		ihr werdet		ihr würdet	
sie werden		sie werden		sie würden	

Imperative.
Sing. springe,
Plur. springet.

Infinitive.
Pres. springen.
Perf. gesprungen sein.

Participles.
Pres. springend.
Perf. gesprungen.

Supine.
Pres. zu springen.
Perf. gesprungen zu sein.

Modern form of Conjugation.

Indicative.

Conjunctive.

Conditional.

Present Tense.

S. ich höre
du hörst (hörst)
er (sie, es) hört (hört)
P. wir hören
ihr hört (hört)
sie hören.

ich höre
du hörst
er höre
wir hören
ihr hört
sie hören.

ich hörte
du hörtest
er hörte
wir hörten
ihr hörtet
sie hörten.

Imperfect Tense.

S. ich hörte
du hörtest
er hörte
P. wir hörten
ihr hörtet
sie hörten.

Perfect Tense.

S. ich habe
du hast
er hat
P. wir haben
ihr habet
sie haben

} gehört.

ich habe
du habest
er habe
wir haben
ihr habet
sie haben

} gehört.

ich hätte
du hättest
er hätte
wir hätten
ihr hättet
sie hätten

} gehört.

Pluperfect Tense.

S. ich hatte
du hattest
er hatte
P. wir hatten
ihr hättet
sie hatten

} gehört.

First Future Tense.

S. ich werde
du wirst
er wird
P. wir werden
ihr werdet
sie werden

} hören.

ich werde
du werdest
er werde
wir werden
ihr werdet
sie werden

} hören.

ich würde
du würdest
er würde
wir würden
ihr würdet
sie würden

} hören.

<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Conjunctive.</i>	<i>Conditional.</i>
Second Future Tense.		
S. ich werde du wirst er wird P. wir werden ihr werdet sie werden	ich werde du werdest er werde wir werden ihr werdet sie werden	ich würde du würdest er würde wir würden ihr würdet sie würden
	gehört haben.	gehört haben.
<i>Imperative.</i> Sing. höre, Plur. höret.	<i>Infinitive.</i> Pres. hören. Perf. gehört haben.	
<i>Participles.</i> Pres. hörend. Perf. gehört.	<i>Supine.</i> Pres. zu hören. Perf. gehört zu haben.	

PASSIVE VOICE.

<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Conjunctive.</i>	<i>Conditional.</i>
Present Tense.		
S. ich werde du wirst er wird P. wir werden ihr werdet sie werden	ich werde du werdest er werde wir werden ihr werdet sie werden	ich würde du würdest er würde wir würden ihr würdet sie würden
	gehört.	gehört.
Imperfect Tense.		
S. ich wurde du wurdest er wurde P. wir wurden ihr wurdet sie wurden		
	gehört.	
Perfect Tense.		
S. ich bin du bist er ist P. wir sind ihr seid sie sind	ich sei du seiest (seist) er sei wir seien ihr seiet sie seien	ich wäre du wärest er wäre wir wären ihr wäret sie wären
	gehört worden.	gehört worden.
Pluperfect Tense.		
S. ich war du warst er war P. wir waren ihr waret sie waren		
	gehört worden.	

<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Conjunctive.</i>	<i>Conditional.</i>
First Future Tense.		
S. ich werde du wirst er wird P. wir werden ihr werdet sie werden	ich werde du werdest er werde wir werden ihr werdet sie werden	ich würde du würdest er würde wir würden ihr würdet sie würden
} gehört werden.	} gehört werden.	} gehört werden.
Second Future Tense.		
S. ich werde du wirst er wird P. wir werden ihr werdet sie werden	ich werde du werdest er werde wir werden ihr werdet sie werden	ich würde du würdest er würde wir würden ihr würdet sie würden
} gehört worden sein.	} gehört worden sein.	} gehört worden sein.
Imperative.		
Sing. werde gehört, Plur. werdet gehört.	Infinitive. Pres. gehört werden. Perf. gehört worden sein.	
Participles.		
Perf. gehört. Fut. zu hörend.	Supine. Pres. gehört zu werden. Perf. gehört worden zu sein.	

CHAPTER II.—Of Substantives.

Gender of Substantives.

§ 93.

SUBSTANTIVES are names of persons or names of things ; or, properly speaking, names of existences, either animate or inanimate. The distinction of animate beings, according to their natural sex, as males and females, is commonly expressed by the *masculine* and *feminine* genders. Inanimate beings having no natural sex, their names belong neither to the masculine nor to the feminine gender, and they are said to be *neuter* (sächlich), or of the *neuter* gender. In German, however, as in the ancient

languages, a great many names of inanimate things have adopted the masculine or feminine gender; e. g. *der Baum*, the tree, *die Blume*: and on the other hand, many names of animate beings, in which the natural sex is not attended to, are classed in the neuter gender; e. g. *das Kalb*, the calf; *das Schwein*, the pig; *das Kind*, the child.

Upon the whole, therefore, the gender of German substantives cannot be ascertained by their signification. It more properly depends upon the forms of the substantive (ancient, middle, &c. § 33—48), which, however, for the most part are influenced by the notions (of persons or of things, abstract or concrete, &c. § 6) which they express*.

The gender is thus very easily discovered by means of the form in the case of secondary derivatives; but in primary derivatives this is more difficult. Those primary derivatives which express the names of animated beings, with an implied distinction of their natural sex, are for the most part of the description of adjective-substantives (§ 35); e. g. *Herr*, master; *Knabe*, boy; *Frau*, woman. All other primary derivatives are, with some exceptions, either masculine, if they belong to the ancient form,—e. g. *der Dieb*, the thief; *der Hund*, the dog; *der Bund*, the alliance; *der Fluß*, the river;—or feminine, if they belong to the middle form; e. g. *die Magd*, the maid; *die Taube*, the pigeon; *die Sprache*, the language; *die Flucht*, the flight.

Gender of Primary Derivatives.

§ 94.

Primary substantives of the ancient form (§ 33), e. g. *Baum*, tree; *Fluß*, river; *Lauf*, course; and their compounds with prefixes and adverbs, e. g. *Verdruß*, disgust; *Anfall*, attack; *Vorzug*, preference,—are masculine; except the following, which are neuter:

1.) Those which have the augment *ge*; e. g. *das Gebot*, the command; *das Gewand*, the garment. Of this description only the following are masculine: *Gebrauch*, use; *Gedanke*,

* Grammatik. § 108.

thought; Genuß, enjoyment; Geruch, smell; Gesang, song; Geschmack, taste; Gestank, stink; Gewinn, gain.

2.) The substantives,—

Maß, carrion.	Fleisch, flesh.	Lehn, feudal grant.
Amt, office.	Floß, float.	Leid, sorrow.
Antlig, face.	Garn, yarn.	Licht, light.
Auge, eye.	Geld, money.	Lied, song.
Bad, bath.	Glas, glass.	Lob, praise.
Begehr, desire.	Glied, limb.	Loch, hole.
Beil, hatched.	Gold, gold.	Loos, lot.
Bein, leg.	Grab, grave.	Loth, plumb-line.
Bestek, a case.	Gras, grass.	Mahl, meal.
Bett, bed.	Haar, hair.	Mal, time.
Bier, beer.	Harz, resin.	Malz, malt.
Bild, image.	Haus, house.	Mark, marrow.
Blatt, leaf.	Heer, army.	Maß, measure.
Blei, lead.	Heil, hail.	Maul, mouth.
Blut, blood.	Hest, shaft.	Meer, sea.
Boot, boat.	Hemd, shirt.	Mehl, meal.
Brett, board.	Herz, heart.	Merk (Augenmerk), aim.
Brod, bread.	Heu, hay.	Moos, moss.
Buch, book.	Hirn, brain.	Mus, marmalade.
Dach, roof.	Holz, wood.	Nest, nest.
Ding, thing.	Horn, horn.	Netz, net.
Dorf, village.	Huhn, hen.	Obst, fruit.
Eck (Viereck), edge, corner.	Jahr, year.	Ohr, ear.
Ei, egg.	Joch, yoke.	Oil, oil.
Eis, ice.	Kalb, calf.	Paar, pair.
Ende, end.	Kind, child.	Pech, pitch.
Erbe, inheritance.	Kinn, chin.	Pfand, pledge.
Erz, ore.	Kleid, clothing.	Pferd, horse.
Fach, shelf.	Knie, knee.	Pfund, pound.
Faß, cask.	Korn, corn.	Rad, wheel.
Feld, field.	Kraut, herb.	Roh, roe.
Fell, skin.	Kreuz, cross.	Reich, kingdom.
Fett, fat.	Lamm, lamb.	Reis, scion.
Fener, fire.	Land, land.	Rind, beef.
	Laub, leaf.	

Rohr, reed.	Sieb, sieve.	Volk, people.
Rosß, horse.	Speck, bacon.	Wachs, wax.
Salz, salt.	Spiel, play.	Wehr, dam.
Schaf, sheep.	Stroh, straw.	Weib, woman.
Scheit, piece of wood.	Stück, piece.	Werg, tow.
Schiff, ship.	Tau, cable.	Werk, work.
Schilf, reed.	Thal, dale.	Wild, game.
Schloß, lock.	Thier, animal.	Wort, word.
Schmalz, grease.	Thor, door.	Zelt, tent.
Schock, number 60.	Tuch, cloth.	Zeug, stuff.
Schwein, swine.	Verdeck, deck.	Ziel, limit.
Schwert, sword.	Verließ, prison.	Zink, zinc.
Seil, rope.	Vieh, beast.	Zinn, tin.

Those substantives of the ancient form which have assumed one of the terminations *er*, *el*, *en*, not affecting the signification (§ 33),—e. g. *Hammer*, hammer; *Schnabel*, beak; *Hafen*, port,—are also masculine: except,—

a.) The following, which are neuter:

Alter, age.	Luder, carrion.	Wunder, wonder.
Bauer, a cage.	Malter, a measure	<u>Zimmer, room.</u>
Eiter, pus.	of corn.	Mandel, number 15.
Euter, adder.	Messer, knife.	Rudel, herd.
Fuder, load.	Nieder, boddice.	<u>Wiesel, weasel.</u>
Futter, food.	Muster, pattern.	Becken, basin.
Gatter, grate.	Polster, cushion.	Eisen, iron.
Gitter, grate.	Ruder, oar.	Füllen, colt.
Klafter, fathom.	Silber, silver.	Kissen, cushion.
Lager, couch.	Ufer, bank.	Laken, sheet.
Laster, vice.	Wasser, water.	Wappen, arms.
Leder, leather.	Wetter, weather.	Zeichen, sign.

b.) The following, which are feminine:

Ader, vein.	Feder, pen.	Kiefer, pine.
Auster, oyster.	Glitter, tinsel.	Klammer, cramp.
Blatter, blister.	Folter, torture.	Klapper, clapper.
Butter, butter.	Halfter, halter.	Leber, liver.
Elster, magpie.	Kammer, chamber.	Leiter, ladder.
Faser, fibre.	Kelter, wine-press.	Masern, measles.

Mutter, mother.	Fackel, torch.	Rassel, rattle.
Natter, adder.	Fessel, fetter.	Schachtel, box.
Otter, adder.	Fiedel, fiddle.	Schaufel, shovel.
Rüster, elm.	Gabel, fork.	Schaukel, swing.
Schleuder, sling.	Geißel, scourge.	Schindel, shingle.
Schulter, shoulder.	Gurgel, throat.	Schüssel, dish.
Tochter, daughter.	Hechel, heckle.	Semmel, roll (of bread).
<u>Wimper, eye-lash.</u>	Hummel, humble-bee.	Sichel, sickle.
Wischel, shoulder.	Kugel, globe.	Spindel, spindle.
Ampel, lamp.	Kuppel, couple, and cupola.	Staffel, step.
Amsel, blackbird.	Kurbel, handle.	Stoppel, stubble.
Angel, hook.	Mangel, mangle.	Tafel, table.
Affel, wood-louse.	Muschel, shell.	Trommel, drum.
Affel, magpie.	Nadel, needle.	Wachtel, quail.
Buckel, boss.	Nessel, nettle.	Waffel, a sort of cake.
Deichsel, pole.	Rudel, vermicelli.	Windel, swadling.
Distel, thistle.	Raspel, rasp.	Wurzel, root.
Drossel, thrust.		
Eichel, acorn.		

The names of rivers ending in *er* and *el*, e. g. *Älter*, *Eider*, *Älter*, *Isar*, *Oder*, *Weser*, *Rosel*, are also feminine.

§ 95.

Primary substantives of the middle form (§ 34), e. g. *Sprache*, language; *Schlange*, snake; *Geburt*, birth; *Runde*, knowledge; *Flucht*, flight; and their compounds with prefixes and adverbs, e. g. *Vernunft*, reason; *Ankunft*, arrival; *Aussprache*, pronunciation;—are feminine: except,

Baß, bass.	Ernst, seriousness.	Monat, month.
Bedacht, reflection.	Forst, forest.	Muß, must.
Betracht, consideration.	Frost, frost.	Rost, rust.
Dacht, wick.	Gicht, yeast.	Schacht, shaft in mines.
Dienst, service.	Gewinnst, gain.	Schaft, shaft.
Draht, wire.	Hecht, pike.	Schust, rascal.
Dunst, vapour.	Herbst, autumn.	Sold, pay.
Durst, thirst.	Mist, dung.	Stift, tag, peg.
	Mond, moon.	Trost, consolation.

Verdacht, suspicion.	Wicht, wight.	Zierat, ornament.
Verlust, loss.	Wust, filth.	Zwist, dispute.
Wanst, paunch.		

which are masculine :—and Haupt, head ; Kind, child ; Kleinod, jewel ; Licht, light ; Stift, foundation ; which are neuter.

It is sometimes difficult to distinguish whether a substantive belongs to the ancient or to the middle form ; for on the one hand, the lingual consonant (t, d), which is one of the characteristic terminations of the middle form, may also occur in a substantive of the ancient form, either as a radical sound, e. g. in der Hut, hat, from hüten, to hide (which is like Naht, seam, from nähen, to sew), or as a final augment (§ 29), e. g. in Kind, Mord, Pferd, Schwert, Wort (§ 94), (which are like Fahrt, drive, from fahren) : and on the other hand, the termination e is frequently dropped in substantives of the middle form (§ 34) ; e. g. in die Hut, guard ; Wahl, choice ; so as to give to them the appearance of substantives of the ancient form. In this way some difficulty arises in ascertaining the gender of such substantives : the following list is given of substantives belonging to the middle form, and therefore feminine, which might have been supposed to be of the ancient form.

Arbeit, toil.	Hand, hand.	Milch, milk.
Bahn, path.	Hast, haste.	Milz, spleen.
Bank, bank.	Haut, skin.	Noth, necessity.
Braut, bride.	Huld, favour.	Nuß, nut.
Brust, breast.	Hut, guard.	Pein, pain.
Brut, brood.	Rehr (Rückkehr), re-	Qual, torment.
Burg, borough.	turn.	Rast, rest.
Flur, field.	Kost, food.	Ruhr, dysentery.
Flut, flood.	Kuh, cow.	Sau, sow.
Fuhr, carrying.	Kur, choice.	Scham, shame.
Gans, goose.	Kühr (Willführ), ar-	Schar, troop.
Gebühr, duty.	bitrary will.	Schau, show.
Gefahr, danger.	Laus, louse.	Scheu, fears.
Geiß, goat.	Mark, boundary.	Schmach, shame.
Gewalt, force.	Maus, mouse.	Schmur, string.
Gier, eagerness.	Maut, duty.	Schur, shearing.

Spur, trace.	Wahl, choice.	Wuth, rage.
Stirn, forehead.	Wand, wall.	Zahl, number.
Streu, straw.	Wehr, defence.	Zier, ornament.
Thür, door.		

Of the same description are, Dauer, duration; Lauer, lurch; Feier, solemnity; Mauer, wall; Scheuer, shed; and Trauer, mourning; in which the final radical sound r has been changed into the syllable er.

§ 96.

Those primary derivatives which are of the description of adjective-substantives (§ 35), are *masculine*, if they are concrete substantives; e. g. Affe, ape; Bürg, bail; Bote, messenger; Hirt, shepherd; Held, hero; Och, ox; except die Frau, wife; die Waife, orphan; Wittve, widow:—they are *neuter*, on the other hand, if they are abstract substantives; e. g. das Weiß, the white colour; das Gut, the good; das Dunkel, the darkness; das Mittel, the means; das Recht, the law; das Uebel, the evil.

Gender of Secondary Derivatives and Compounds.

§ 97.

The secondary derivatives formed by the affixes er (§ 38) and ling (§ 41), are masculine: those formed by the affixes in (§ 39), ung (§ 43), ei (§ 46), e, heit (§ 47), and schaft (§ 48), are all feminine, except Hernung, February, which is masculine: and substantive-infinitives (§ 42), collective and frequentative substantives formed by the augment ge (§ 44), and those formed by the affixes chen, lein, el (§ 40), niß, sal, sel (§ 45), and thum (§ 48), are neuter: except, Bedrängniß and Betrübniß, affliction; Bekümmerniß, sorrow; Besorgniß, apprehension; Bewandniß, condition; Empfängniß, conception; Ersparniß, savings; Erlaubniß, permission; Fäulniß, putrefaction; Finsterniß, darkness; Kenntniß, knowledge; Verdammniß, damnation; Wildniß, wilderness; which are feminine: and Irrthum, error; Reichthum, riches; Wachsthum, growth; which are masculine. Trübsal, affliction, is employed in the feminine as well as in the neuter gender.

Compound substantives have the gender of that component (§ 53) which expresses the general meaning of the whole word; e. g. *der Birnbaum* the pear-tree; *das Weinglas*, the wine-glass. The substantive *Mittwoch* or *Mittwochen*, Wednesday, alone follows the analogy of the other names of the days in the week, and is masculine, contrary to the general rule. In compounds like *der Langohr*, the long-eared one; *der Stumpfnase*, the flat-nosed one; *der Langbein*, the long-legged one; the determined component (*Ohr*, *Nase*, *Bein*) has the signification of an adjective (eared, nosed), and the compound has the signification and gender of the substantive understood. On that account, also, *Neunauge*, lamprey, is feminine.

Gender of foreign Substantives and of names of countries and places.

§ 98.

Foreign substantives, on being adopted in German, generally retain the gender of their original language. Some of them, however, which have lost the foreign terminations, and are assimilated in their form to words originally German, have assumed another gender, according to the analogy of their form. In this way, e. g. *Altar*, *Dialekt*, *Diphthong*, *Körper*, *Palast*, *Punkt*, *Ruin*, *Tempel*, *Tribut*, *Vitriol*, are masculine; *Bibel*, *Kanzel*, *Orgel*, *Hymne*, are feminine; and *Abenteuer*, adventure, *Echo*, *Fenster*, *Fieber*, *Genie*, *Kamel*, *Labyrinth*, *Papier*, *Pulver*, *Konsulat*, *Episkopat*, *Protektorat*, and other abstracts ending in *at*, are neuter.

Proper names of countries and places are neuter: except, *die Lausitz*, *die Mark*, *die Pfalz*, *die Schweiz*, *die Türkei*, and all names of countries made by the affix *ei*, which are feminine; and some compounds, e. g. *der Aargau*, *der Rheingau*, *die Wetterau*, *die Wartburg*, which have the gender of their determined component.

§ 99.

Some substantives have assumed different genders in different dialects, or have even altered their gender, retaining their original gender for particular significations or in particular compounds only; in consequence of which they are

now employed in two genders. Thus we say, *der Verdacht*, suspicion, and *die Andacht*, devotion; *der Hochmuth*, pride, *der Edelmuth*, generosity, and *die Sanftmuth*, gentleness; *die Großmuth*, magnanimity, *die Schwermuth*, melancholy; *der Abscheu*, horror, and *die Schen*, shyness, *die Wasserscheu*, hydrophobia; *der Verkehr*, intercourse, and *die Rückkehr*, return.

A different signification is especially pointed out by a difference of gender in the following substantives:—

der Band, the volume (of a book)	} das Band, the band (tie).
der Bund, the alliance	das Bund, the bundle.
der Chor, the choir.....	das Chor, the chorus.
die Erkenntniß, knowledge	das Erkenntniß, judicial decision.
der Gehalt, the contents.....	das Gehalt, the salary.
der Gift, saliva, foam	das Gift, the poison.
der Harz, the Harz forest	das Harz, resin.
der Lohn, reward	das Lohn, the wages.
der Mensch, man	das Mensch, a wench.
der Schild, the shield	das Schild, the sign of an inn.
der See, the lake	die See, the sea.
der Stift, the peg, tag	{ das Stift, foundation (ecclesiastical).
der Theil, part of a whole ...	das Theil, the share, portion.
der Verdienst, the profit of labour.....	} das Verdienst, the merit.

Observation 1.—The compounds of *Theil* are masculine: *Urtheil*, judgment, however, is neuter.

Observation 2.—*Der Bauer*, the farmer, and *das Bauer*, the cage; *der Erbe*, the heir, and *das Erbe*, the inheritance; *der Heide*, the pagan, and *die Heide*, heath; *der Kiefer*, jaw, and *die Kiefer*, pine; *der Kunde*, customer, and *die Kunde*, knowledge; *der Leiter*, conductor, and *die Leiter*, ladder; *der Mangel*, want, and *die Mangel*, mangle; and some others, though having the same letters, belong either to different roots, or to different forms of derivation, and therefore are not to be considered as the same words.

Articles.

§ 100.

The distinction of *individuality* (§ 6) in the persons and things expressed by substantives, is pointed out by *articles* in German, as in English. There are two articles, the *definite*

and the *indefinite*; in both of which the three genders and three cases are distinguished by inflection. The indefinite article, as in English, has no plural number. They are declined in the following way:

<i>Definite Article (the).</i>				<i>Indefinite Article (an, a).</i>			
Sing.			Plur.	Sing.			
masc.	fem.	neut.		masc.	fem.	neut.	
N. der	die	daß,	die.	N. ein	eine	ein.	
G. deß	der	deß,	der.	G. eines	einer	eines.	
D. dem	der	dem,	den.	D. einem	einer	einem.	
Ac. den	die	daß,	die.	Ac. einen	eine	ein.	

§ 101.

The general rules for the use of articles in German are the same as in English: names of materials,—e. g. *Wasser*, water; *Sand*, sand; and abstract substantives, e. g. *Stolz*, pride; *Ruhe*, rest;—in which no individual is distinguished, assume no article: proper names also, which properly denote individuals not conceived as individuals of a species (§ 6), assume no article; and we class along with them the names of the quarters of the globe, *Osten*, *Westen*, *Norden*, *Süden*. Common names, which imply species comprehending many individuals, e. g. *Pferd*, horse; *Baum*, tree; assume either the definite or the indefinite article, according as either a definite individual of the species, e. g. *daß Pferd meines Vaters*, or an indefinite one, e. g. *ein Pferd*, a horse, is understood.

A common name in the plural number, not distinguishing any individuals of the species, is like a name of materials, and consequently assumes no article; e. g. *Pferde*, horses; *Bäume*, trees. When, on the other hand, names of materials or proper names assume the signification of common names, they take articles; e. g. *der rheinische Wein*, the Rhenish wine; *Salpeter ist ein Salz*, nitre is a salt; *nicht Jeder ist ein Newton*, every man is not a Newton; *die Stuarts*; *die Bourbonen*. The German practice however regarding the use of articles is in many respects different from that of the English, as will be seen from the following rules.

§ 102.

Proper names admit of the definite article, when a particular relation to the speaker, i. e. that of familiar intercourse, is to be expressed; e. g. *rufe mir den Johan*, call John; *grüße die Marie*, remember me to Mary*. In the same way the article is given to names of materials, if a particular specimen is to be pointed out; e. g. *bringe mir den Kaffee*, bring me (my) coffee; *wo ist der Wein?* where is the wine? An adjective standing before proper names always gives them the value of common names; and they assume the definite article; e. g. *der arme Johan*, poor John; *die schöne Rosamunde*, fair Rosamond, *der heilige Peter*, St. Peter.

On the other hand, common names take no article if they rather express a quality or condition than individuality; e. g. *Ich bin Vater*, I am *a* father; *er ist Soldat geworden*, he has become *a* soldier; *er ist Kaufmann*, he is *a* merchant; *er handelt als Freund*, he acts as *a* friend†. Names of nations, however, in this case always take the article; e. g. *er ist ein Franzose*, *ein Engländer*, *ein Deutscher*, he is *a* Frenchman, an Englishman, a German.

Common names have the signification of abstract substantives, and admit of no article in expressions like *zu Tische*, *zu Markte*, *zu Bette gehen*, to go to dinner, to the fair, to bed; and *er reiset zu Fuße*, *zu Pferde*, *zu Wagen*, *zu Schiffe*, he travels on foot, on horseback, in a carriage, in a ship. The most usual titles, which have the subordinate accent, take no article; e. g. *König Lear*, king Lear, *Doktor Gall*, Frau Johnson, Kaiser Karl; (we say, however, *die Königin Elisabeth*, *die Kaiserin Maria Theresia*.) The same applies to titles of books; e. g. *Deutsche Grammatik*, German grammar. In expressions like *ein König ohne Land*, a king without a territory; *er zieht über Berg und Thal*, he marches over hill and dale. The common names are used in the most general and indefinite signification, and have therefore no article before them.

In German the definite article is employed in a peculiar

* Der Zell gefangen abgeführt! Sch.

Ich mag's und will's nicht glauben daß mich der Mar verlassen hat. Sch.

† Dein Sohn ist König oder Sklav, wie du lebst oder stirbst. Sch.

way, in order to represent the whole of a genus or species of concrete things, or the whole extent of an abstract notion. Thus in expressions like *durch die Vernunft unterscheidet sich der Mensch von dem Thiere*, by reason man is distinguished from beasts; *der Fisch schwimmt und der Vogel fliegt*, fishes swim and birds fly; *all men* (mankind), *all* beasts, fishes, and birds, are expressed by the definite article standing before the substantive in the singular number: and in expressions like *das Gold ist dehnbar*, gold is ductile; *das Wasser ist farblos*, water is colourless; *das Quecksilber ist ein flüssiges Metall*, quicksilver is a liquid metal; *all* gold, water, or quicksilver, is understood. In the same manner we say, e. g. *das Leben ist kurz*, die Kunst aber lang, *vita brevis, ars longa*; die Tugend ist kein leerer Schall, virtue is not an empty sound; der Glaube macht selig, faith is saving *. The abstract notion, which commonly is conceived indefinitely like the notions of materials †, is in these expressions represented as an individual. Substantive-infinitives (§ 42) commonly express the abstract notion in this comprehensive way, and therefore generally take the definite article; e. g. *das Sprechen ist dem Menschen natürlich*, language is natural to man; *das Regiren ist eine schwere Kunst*, governing is a difficult art; er haßt das Studiren, he hates study. Substantive-infinitives however are sometimes used in the other way also; e. g. er denkt nur an Essen und Trinken, he thinks only of eating and drinking; er beschäftigt sich mit Lesen, mit Spielen, he amuses himself with reading, with playing.

The German idiom requires the article before substantives expressing *time* (months, days, and parts of the day); e. g. *der Frühling*, spring; *der Sommer*, summer; *der Mai*, May; *der Sonntag*, Sunday; *der Abend*, evening: before the collective names of corporations, orders, ranks, and systems of belief or government; e. g. *das Parlament*, parliament; *der Adel*, nobility; *das Christenthum*, Christianity; *das Judenthum*, Judaism;

* Die Kühnheit macht, die Freiheit den Soldaten. Sch.

Ernst ist das Leben, heiter ist die Kunst. Sch.

Die Klugheit rath's, die Noth gebent's. Sch.

Wie die Tugend hat das Laster seine Grade. Schlegel.

† Krieg ist ewig zwischen List und Argwohn; nur zwischen Glauben und Vertrauen ist Friede. Sch.

die Monarchie, monarchy; die Demokratie, democracy: and before the substantives, Natur, nature; Leben, life; Tod, death*; Zufall, chance; Schicksal, fate†; Glück, luck; Gesetz, law; Sitte, custom; Ehestand, matrimony; Stadt, town; Kirche, church; Himmel, heaven; Erde, earth; and some others, the notion of which is conceived individually.

It is not agreeable to the German idiom to place an article after the indefinite numerals, *mancher* and *alle*, as in the English expressions *many a man*, *mancher Mann*; *all the world*, *alle Welt*. The numerals *hundert* and *tausend* are sometimes used as substantives; in which case they assume an article: usually, however, they, like other numerals, admit of no article. Proper names of rivers, lakes, and mountains, have the definite article as in English.

Observation.—The article is frequently omitted for the sake of eurythmy, when two or more substantives are connected by copulative conjunctions; e. g. *du sollst Vater und Mutter ehren*, thou shalt honour (thy) father and (thy) mother; *er hat Weib und Kind verlassen*, he has left (his) wife and (his) children; *er gelehet mit Mund und Hand*, he promises with (his) mouth and (his) hand‡. The same applies especially to expressions formed by alliteration; e. g. *Haus und Hof verlassen*, to leave house and home; *sie sind mit Mann und Maus ertrunken*, they have been drowned altogether (with men and mice); *Ross und Reuter*, (the) horse and (his) rider; *über Stock und Stein laufen*, to run over sticks and stones; *mit Rath und That beistehen*, to assist with words and deeds, with heart and hand. The article is also omitted in expressions like *ich habe es in Händen*, I have it in (my) hands; *er sieht es vor Augen*, he sees it before (his) eyes; in which the possessive pronoun is generally added in English.

§ 103.

Declension is expressed in its greatest perfection in the definite article (§ 100); substantives therefore which do not generally take an article, frequently assume it in order to distinguish cases, if this is not sufficiently done by the inflection of the substantive itself, or by a preposition. In this way the definite article stands before *proper names of persons*, when

* Weicht nicht dem Tode, gebietet der Natur. Sch.

† Der Tag des Schicksals ist gekommen. Sch.

‡ Größne deine Schlünde wildes Meer!

Verflicge Schiff und Mann und Schätze. Göthe.

Ihm schenkt sie Thron und Hand. Sch.

they do not admit of a perfect declension; e. g. ähnlich dem Plato, similar to Plato; das Heer des Xerxes, the army of Xerxes; der Tod des Sokrates, the death of Socrates*. In the same way it is frequently taken by the *names of materials* and *abstract substantives*, especially if they are of the feminine gender, and therefore not declined in the singular number; e. g. der Luft entbehren, to want air; er zieht Wasser der Milch vor, he prefers water to milk; der Liebe würdig, worthy of affection; das Kind der Schuld, the offspring of guilt†.

For the same purpose *common names*,—if they imply a species or genus indefinitely, and ought to have the indefinite article in the singular number, and no article at all in the plural,—assume the definite article in the plural number; e. g. der Gesang der Vögel, the singing of birds; die Meinung der Naturforscher, the opinion of naturalists; die Spiele der Kinder, the amusements of children.

The definite article is also employed in order to distinguish the gender of those proper names of countries and places which are not of the neuter gender (§ 98); e. g. die Schweiz, die Pfalz, der Rheingau, die Wartburg: and with female surnames, if no title (Frau, Fräulein) is given to them; e. g. die Catalani, die Sonntag.

Plural number of Substantives.

§ 104.

Common names are by their signification entitled to a plural number: proper names, names of materials, and all abstract substantives, have no plural number; but whenever they are considered as common names (§ 101), they also take a plural number; e. g. die Stuarts; die Mineralwasser, the mineral waters; die Erden, the earths; die Genüsse, enjoyments; die Handlungen, actions; die Tugenden, virtues.

However, every language has its own peculiar practice with regard to the use of the plural number. Many abstract substantives which are primary derivatives, are not susceptible

* War' ich dem Ferdinand gewesen, was Octavio mir war! Sch.

Es kam der Xetis buntes Heer. Sch.

† Der Tag der Rache ist gekommen. Sch.

Zerriß er mit den Fesseln der Furcht nur nicht die Zügel der Scham. Sch.

of the plural number, though the corresponding substantives in English in some cases assume it. Such are,

die Ankunft, arrival.	der Rath, advice.
der Argwohn, suspicion.	der Raub, the spoil.
der Beginn, the beginning.	der Schein, appearance.
der Bund, the alliance.	der Schmuck, ornament.
der Dank, thanks.	der Strand, strand.
der Druck, the impression.	der Streit, the dispute.
die Ehre, honour.	der Sturz, the fall.
das Elend, misery.	der Tadel, reproach.
der Empfang, receipt.	der Tausch, exchange.
die Furcht, fear.	der Trost, consolation.
das Glück, fortune.	das Unrecht, wrong.
der Gram, grief.	das Unglück, misfortune.
der Hader, dispute.	der Unterricht, instruction.
der Jammer, misery.	der Verdacht, suspicion.
der Kauf, the purchase.	der Verstand, understanding.
der Kummer, affliction.	der Verdruss, vexation.
die Liebe, love.	die Vorsicht, precaution.
das Lob, praise.	der Wahn, the false idea.
der Lohn, the reward.	der Zank, quarrel.
der Mund, mouth.	der Zwang, the constraint.
die Pracht, splendour.	der Zwist, dispute.

Along with which the substantive-infinitives, *Leben*, life; *Vermögen*, fortune; *Verlangen*, wish; *Entzücken*, rapture; *Ansehen*, authority; *Einkommen*, revenue; must be classed. In these substantives the plural number of the English is supplied either by the singular number, e. g. *viel Dank*, *Lob*, *Furcht*, &c. many thanks, praises, fears; or by other synonymous substantives, e. g. *Bündnisse*, *Kümmernisse*, *Belohnungen*, *Tröstungen*, *Zwistigkeiten*, *Einkünfte*, alliances, afflictions, rewards, consolations, quarrels, revenues.

Names of materials, e. g. *Asche*, ashes; *Sand*, sand; *Thau*, dew; *Schnee*, snow; *Regen*, rain; *Unkraut*, weeds, &c. do not assume the plural number; and along with them are to be classed, in this respect, all masculine and neuter names of plants; e. g. *Kohl*, cabbage; *Hopfen*, hops. Exceptions are, *der Schwamm*, *der Pilz*, *das Gras*, *das Kraut*, *das Moos*, and

some others, when different species of the same genus are to be expressed.

In German, as in other languages, some substantives are used only in the plural number. Some of them, e. g. *Ähnen*, ancestors; *Eltern*, parents; *Alpen*, alps; *Beinkleider* and *Hosen*, trousers; *Fußstapfen*, footsteps; *Gebrüder*, brothers; *Geschwister*, brother and sister; *Gliedmaßen*, limbs; *Leute*, people; *Schranken*, bounds; imply plurality of individuals;—but others, e. g. *Briefschaften*, papers; *Einkünfte*, revenue; *Gefälle*, rents; *Hefen*, yeast; *Kosten*, expenses; *Masern*, measles; *Molken*, whey; *Künste*, tricks; *Rötheln*, measles; *Sporteln*, fees; *Treber*, lees; *Trümmer*, ruins; *Truppen*, troops; *Zeitläufte*, occurrences of the time; express notions of materials conceived without any distinction of individuals in the plural number. *Fasten*, Lent; *Ferien*, vacation (holidays); *Ostern*, Easter; *Wingsien*, Whitsuntide; and *Weihnachten*, Christmas; were originally conceived as expressing a plurality of days; and the plural number has been retained in them, though they are not now conceived in the same way.

Observation 1.—*Leute* (French *gens*) implies a number of persons in the most indefinite way, without distinguishing either the species, as is done in *Menschen*, or the sex, as in *Männer*. In this way the plural forms, *Landleute*, country people; *Eheleute*, married people; *Edelleute*, noblemen; *Kaufleute*, merchants, (from *Landmann*, *Edelmann*, &c.) are distinguished from *Ehrenmänner*, men of honour; *Amtmänner*, bailiffs; *Ehemänner*, married men (from *Ehrenmann*, &c.); and from *Unmenschen*, inhuman (beings); *Halbmenschen*, halfmen (from *Unmensch*, &c.).

Observation 2.—The substantives *das Haar*, the hair; *das Eingeweide*, and *das Gedärm*, the intestines; *das Gewürm*, worms; *das Gebein*, the bones of a body; although susceptible of the plural number, are also used collectively in the singular number.

§ 105.

The names of measures, numbers, or weights, when preceded by numerals, do not take the inflection of the plural number; e. g. *sechs Fuß lang*, six foot long; *zwei Paar Schuhe*, two pair of shoes; *drei Duzend Äpfel*, three dozen of apples; *seven Stück Vieh*, seven head of cattle; *vier Pfund Brod*, four pounds of bread. The same applies to *Mann*, if it implies a number; e. g. *ein Regiment von tausend Mann*, a regiment of

a thousand men. Feminine substantives, however, and those which imply a measure of time, are excepted from this rule; e. g. *sechs Ellen Tuch*, six yards of cloth; *sieben Meilen*, seven miles; *drei Jahre*, three years. The expression *es ist vier Uhr*, it is four o'clock, is elliptical, instead of *es ist vier an der Uhr*.

Declension of Substantives.

§ 106.

In the declension of German substantives, not only the singular and plural numbers are distinguished, as in English, but also three cases, viz. the *genitive*, *dative*, and *accusative*, as in Greek. There are also two forms of declension for substantives, distinguished by the denominations of the *ancient* and of the *modern* form, and corresponding to the same forms of conjugation (§ 79).

Observation.—The ancient form, e. g. *der Fuß*, Gen. *des Fußes*, Pl. *die Füße*, seems to be the form of declension primitively appropriated to substantives: and the modern form, e. g. *der Knabe*, Gen. *des Knaben*, Pl. *die Knaben*, which does not differ from the modern form of declension of adjectives, e. g. *gute*, Gen. *guten*, Pl. *guten*, seems originally to belong only to adjective-substantives (§ 7). Many substantives, however, which originally have had the ancient form of declension, and in particular the most part of feminine substantives, have adopted the modern form: some of them have assumed the modern form only in the plural number, retaining the ancient in the singular.

§ 107.

In the *ancient* form, the genitive case singular has the sign *es*, the dative *e*, and the accusative is like the nominative. All cases of the plural number have *e*, except the dative, which has *en*. When the substantive is a primary derivative, and has the vowel *a*, *o*, or *u*, it is generally *modified* (§ 24) in the plural number. The English plurals *feet*, *geese*, *lice*, *mice*, are remains of this declension.

In the *modern* form, the genitive and all cases of the singular as well as plural number have the sign *en*, which the English has retained in *oxen* and *brethren*. In this form the vowel is not modified in the plural.

Some substantives declined in the ancient form have assumed

the sign *r* after the *e* of the plural number ; e. g. *Geist-er*, *Geist-ern*, instead of *Geist-e*, *Geist-en*.

When substantives have a final *e* not accented, it is omitted before the signs of declension.

Feminine substantives generally are not at all declined in the singular number.

Both forms of declension are exhibited in the following tabular view.

Ancient form of Declension.

Singular.		
Nom.	der Sohn (son)	der Wald (wood) die Nacht (night)
Gen.	des Sohn-es	des Wald-es der Nacht
Dat.	dem Sohn-e	dem Wald-e der Nacht
Acc.	den Sohn	den Wald die Nacht
Plural.		
Nom.	die Söhn-e	die Wäld-er die Nächt-e
Gen.	der Söhn-e	der Wäld-er der Nächt-e
Dat.	den Söhn-en	den Wäld-ern den Nächt-en
Acc.	die Söhn-e.	die Wäld-er. die Nächt-e.

Modern form of Declension.

Singular.	
Nom.	der Graf (count) die Frau (woman)
Gen.	des Graf-en der Frau
Dat.	dem Graf-en der Frau
Acc.	den Graf-en die Frau
Plural.	
Nom.	die Graf-en die Frau-en
Gen.	der Graf-en der Frau-en
Dat.	den Graf-en den Frau-en
Acc.	die Graf-en. die Frau-en.

Observation.—In ancient German, feminine substantives were declined in the singular number also ; the remainder of which practice we have in the expressions *zu Gunsten*, in favour ; *auf Erden*, upon earth ; *von Seiten*, from the part ; *von Statten gehen*, to succeed ; *zu Schanden werden*, to be put to shame ; and some others.

§ 108.

In the signs of declension, as in the signs of conjugation (§ 80), the vowel *e* (and if the whole of the termination consists of this vowel, the whole termination) is frequently dropped for the sake of eurythmy. This omission of the vowel *e* is very common in the genitive and dative cases of polysyllables, when the last syllable is unaccented; e. g. *des Königs*, *dem König*; *des Oheims*, *dem Oheim*; *des Monats*, *dem Monat*; instead of *König-es*, *König-e*, &c.

The vowel *e* is always dropped, both in the singular and plural number, when the substantive has one of the unaccented terminations *er*, *el*, *en*, *chen*, and *lein*; e. g. *Vater*, father; *Flügel*, wing; *Degen*, sword; *Mädchen*, girl; *Fräulein*, young lady;—G. *des Vaters*, N. pl. *die Väter*, &c.

The vowel *e* is also frequently omitted in the dative case of substantives declined in the ancient form, though they have no unaccented termination, when they are abstract substantives or names of materials, and used without an article in a general and indefinite signification; e. g. *mit Sturm einnehmen*, to take by storm; *Etwas mit Verstand thun*, to perform something with skill; *mit Wein abwaschen*, to wash with wine; *mit Gift tödten*, to kill by poison; *Etwas mit Fleiß thun*, to do on purpose; *ein Ring von Gold*, a ring of gold. When, on the other hand, an article, a pronoun, or an adjective, stands before the substantive, the vowel *e* is not dropped; e. g. *in dem ersten Sturme*, by the first storm; *mit seinem Weine*, with his wine; *von reinem Golde*, of pure gold.

Substantives declined in the Ancient form.

§ 109.

The following substantives are of the ancient form of declension.

1.) All substantives originally German, of the masculine and neuter genders, from which only those names of persons and animals are excepted which are of the description of adjective-substantives (§ 7. see § 111).

2.) The following primary derivatives of the feminine gender:

Angst, anguish.	Haut, skin.	Nacht, night.
Ausflucht, evasion.	Kluft, fissure.	Naht, seam.
Art, axe.	Kraft, force.	Noth, affliction.
Bank, bench.	Ruh, cow.	Nuß, nut.
Braut, bride.	Kunst, art.	Sau, sow.
Brust, breast.	Laus, louse.	Schnur, string.
Faust, fist.	Lust, air.	Stadt, town.
Frucht, fruit.	Lust, delight.	Tochter, daughter.
Gans, goose.	Macht, power.	Wand, wall.
Geschwulst, tumour.	Magd, maid-servant.	Wulst, tumour.
Grust, grave.	Maus, mouse.	Wurst, sausage.
Hand, hand.	Mutter, mother.	Zunft, guild.

And the compounds of the substantives *Kunst* and *Laust* which are not used separate; e. g. *Zusammenkunft*, meeting; *Einkünfte*, revenue; and *Zeitläufte*, occurrences of time; which are usual only in the plural number (§ 104). The compounds of *Macht*, e. g. *Ohnmacht*, swoon, and *Vollmacht*, credentials, are, on the other hand, declined in the modern form.

3.) The secondary derivatives of the feminine gender made by the affix *niß* (§ 97).

The terminations of the plural number have the sign *r* (§ 107),

a.) In the following masculine substantives :

Bösewicht, malefactor.	Leib, body.	Reichthum, riches.
Dorn, thorn.	Mann, man.	Vormund, guardian.
Geist, ghost.	Ort, place.	Wald, forest.
Gott, God.	Rand, margin.	Wurm, worm.
Irrthum, error.		

b.) In all primary derivatives of the neuter gender (§ 94) which have not the augment *ge*, and have for their final sound a mute consonant or a semi-consonant (*f*, *sch*); e. g. *Kalb*, calf, *Kälber*: except,—

Beet, bed (in a garden).	Floß, float.	Loos, lot.
Besetz, case.	Gift, poison.	Loth, plummet.
Brod, bread.	Harz, resin.	Maß, measure.
Ding, thing.	Heft, haft.	Moos, moss.
Ed, edge.	Joch, yoke.	Netz, net.
Erz, ore.	Kreuz, cross.	Pferd, horse.

Pfund, pound.	Schaf, sheep.	Verdeck, deck.
Recht, law.	Schiff, ship.	Verließ, prison.
Reich, kingdom.	Schock, the number 60.	Werk, work.
Rosß, horse.	Sieb, sieve.	Zelt, tent.
Salz, salt.	Stück, piece.	Zeug, stuff.

Those primary derivatives of the neuter gender, on the other hand, which have the augment ge, or a final vowel or liquid consonant, e. g. das Gesetz, the law; das Knie, the knee; das Bein, the leg; do not assume the sign r in the plural number: except,—

Ei, egg.	Mal, mark.	Geschlecht, race.
Horn, horn.	Maul, mouth.	Gesicht, face.
Huhn, hen.	Thal, valley.	Gespenst, spectre.
Korn, corn.	Gemach, room.	Gewand, garment.
Lamm, lamb.	Gemüth, mind.	

Mal, in the compound Werfmal, token, has the plural form Werfmale.

Of secondary derivatives, only those made by the affix thum (§ 48) take the sign r in the plural.

The following substantives have the singular number declined in the ancient, and the plural in the modern form (§ 106):

1.) The masculine substantives,—

Ahn, ancestor (not now used in the singular number).	Mast, mast.	Strahl, beam.
Forst, forest.	Nachbar, neighbour.	Strauß, ostrich.
Gevatter, godfather.	Wau, peacock.	Vetter, cousin.
Lorbeer, laurel.	See, lake.	Unterthan, subject.
	Sporn, spur.	Zierat, ornament.
	Stachel, sting.	

2.) The neuter substantives, Auge, eye; Bett, bed; Ende, end; Hemd, shirt; Herz, heart; and Ohr, ear. From Bett and Hemd, however, the plural is made also in the ancient form; e. g. Bette, Hemder. Herz has in the singular number gen. Herzens, and dat. Herzen. The substantives, Fels, rock; Friede, peace; Funke, spark; Gedanke, thought; Glaube, belief; Haufe, heap; Name, name; Same, seed; Schade, damage; Buchstabe, letter; Wille, will; originally had the termination en, and are still declined according to this termination (§ 108);

e. g. N. Name, G. Namens, D. Namen, N. pl. Namen. Schmerz is declined in the ancient form in the singular number, and in the modern form in the plural; but has Schmerzens for the genitive singular.

§ 110.

Primary derivatives declined in the ancient form have the vowels a, o, u, modified in the plural number; e. g. Bach, brook, Bäche; Sohn, son, Söhne; Stuhl, stool, Stühle. The following however are exceptions:

1.) All neuter substantives which do not assume the sign r in the terminations of the plural number; e. g. das Schaf, Schafe.

2.) Those primary derivatives of the masculine gender, which have assumed the terminations er, el, en (§ 94); e. g. der Sommer, summer, die Sommer; der Hafen, hook, die Hafen: except the following, which have the vowel modified:

Acker, field.	Handel, quarrel.	Boden, bottom.
Bruder, brother.	Mangel, fault.	Faden, fathom.
Hammer, hammer.	Mantel, cloak.	Garten, garden.
Schwager, brother-in-law.	Nabel, navel.	Graben, ditch.
	Nagel, nail.	Hafen, port.
Vater, father.	Sattel, saddle.	Ofen, stove.
Apfel, apple.	Schnabel, beak.	Schaden, damage.
Hammel, wedder.	Vogel, bird.	

In Bogen, arch; Laden, shutter, shop; Magen, stomach; Wagen, carriage; the practice in this respect varies.

3.) The following masculine substantives:

Aal, eel.	Herzog, duke.	Schuh, shoe.
Adler, eagle.	Huf, hoof.	Staar, starling.
Amboss, anvil.	Hund, dog.	Stoff, stuff.
Anwalt, attorney.	Kobold, hobgoblin.	Tag, day.
Arm, arm.	Laut, sound.	Trunkenbold, drunkard.
Docht, wick.	Luchs, lynx.	
Dolch, dagger.	Molch, salamander.	Unhold, monster.
Gemahl, husband.	Mond, moon.	Vielfraß, glutton.
Halm, stalk.	Monat, month.	Wiedehopf, hoop.
Hauch, breath.	Pfad, path.	Zoll, inch.

In *Lachs*, salmon, the practice is variable.

Observation.—The affix *thum*, e. g. in *Trutthum*, being originally a notional word (§ 1), has the vowel modified in the plural number; e. g. *Trutthümer*.

Substantives declined in the Modern form.

§ 111.

The following substantives have the modern form of declension :

1.) All feminine substantives except those mentioned above (§ 109, 2 and 3).

2.) Those masculine names of persons and animals, which are of the description of adjective-substantives (§ 7): such are,—

Bär, bear.	Graf, count.	Narr, fool.
Bauer, farmer.	Held, hero.	Ochſ, ox.
Fürſt, prince.	Herr, lord, master.	Thor, fool.
Geſ, fool.	Hirt, herdsman.	Vorfahr, ancestor.
Gefell, companion.	Menſch, man.	

And all masculine names of persons and animals which have the termination *e*; e. g. *Bote*, messenger; *Knabe*, boy; *Erbe*, heir; *Affe*, ape; *Haſe*, hare; *Löwe*, lion; *Falke*, falcon.

3.) The names of nations ending in *e*, which are also of the description of adjective-substantives; e. g. *Böhme*, Bohemian; *Britte*, Briton; *Franke*, Frank; *Sachſe*, Saxon; *Schwabe*, Swabian; *Schwede*, Swede; *Jude*, Jew.—*Baier*, Bavarian; *Barbar*, Barbarian; *Kaffer*, Caffer; *Mehr*, Moor; *Tartar*, Tartar; *Ungar*, Hungarian, &c. are of the same class, the final *e* being thrown off.

§ 112.

There are some substantives which have two forms of the plural number, originating from varieties of dialect; e. g. *Lande* and *Länder*, countries; *Orte* and *Orter*, places; *Dornen* and *Dörner*, thorns; *Hähne* and *Hähnen*, cocks. Different significations are distinguished by different forms of the plural number in the following substantives:—

- daß Band, Pl. die Bänder, ribbons.
 die Bande, chains, ties.
- die Bank, — die Bänke, benches.
 die Banken, (commercial) banks.
- daß Bett, — die Bette, beds.
 die Betten, bedding.
- daß Gesicht, — die Gesichter, faces.
 die Gesichte, visions.
- daß Horn, — die Hörner, horns.
 die Horne, different kinds of horn.
- die Sau, — die Säue, pigs.
 die Sauen, wild boars.
- daß Wort — die Wörter, single words.
 die Worte, words forming sentences (speech).
- daß Ding — die Dinge, things generally.
 die Dinger, things, most part animals or crea-
 tures; e. g. die kleinen Dinger, the
 small animals; die jungen Dinger,
 the young girls.
- daß Stück, — die Stücke, pieces.
 die Stücken, fragments.

Declension of Foreign Substantives.

§ 113.

In general the declension of foreign substantives is analogous to that of substantives originally German. Masculine and neuter substantives have the ancient form of declension: a great many masculine names of persons, however, which are adjective-substantives, or analogous to them, as well as feminine substantives, have the modern form of declension. The sign *r* is adopted in the plural of the neuter substantives, Hospital, Spital, Kamisol, Regiment, and Parlament: the vowel is modified in the plural only in the following; Abt, Altar, Bischof, Chor, Choral, Hospital, Spital, Kamisol, Kanal, Kaplan, Kardinal, Kloster, Marsch, Morast, Palast, Pabst, Probst. In General and Tribunal the practice in this respect varies.

Of masculine names of persons only the following have the

ancient form throughout : Abt, Pabst, Probst, Bischof, Major, Matador, Espion, Patron, Magister, Offizier, and those ending in al, ar, an, aner, and iner, taken from the Latin terminations *alis*, *arius*, *anus*, and *inus* ; e. g. Kardinal, Vicar, Notar, Kaplan, Puritaner, Jakobiner. The plural forms Vikarien, Notarien, Kommissarien, however, are sometimes used.

The following foreign substantives have the singular declined in the ancient, and the plural in the modern form :

1.) The masculine names of persons having the unaccented termination *or* ; e. g. Doktor, Professor.

2.) The neuter adjective-substantives which have the termination *tiv*, from the Latin *tivum* ; e. g. Substantiv, Adjectiv. —Vomitiv, Recitativ, Kreditiv, however, and some others, have the plural also of the ancient form.

3.) Those neuter substantives of Latin origin, in which the Latin termination *ium* has been either retained or dropped ; e. g. Studium, Evangelium, and Adverb, Partizip, Prinzip ; and many neuter adjective-substantives which have the terminations *al* and *il*, from the Latin *ale* and *ile* ; e. g. Kapital, Regal, Bachanal, Fossil. They all have retained the vowel *i* in the termination of the plural number ; e. g. Stud-ien, Adverb-ien, Kapital-ien, Fossil-ien. The same applies to Kurialien, Naturalien, Mobilien, and some others, which are used only in the plural number.

4.) The masculine substantives, Dämon, Diamant, Gasan, Kapaun, Impost, Konsul, Muschel, Pantoffel, Präsekt, Walm, Rubin, Staat, Thron, Traktat ; and the neuter substantives, Insekt, Pronom, Statut, Verb. The substantives Aspekt and Ehepakt, marriage-contract, are used only in the plural number, which has also the modern form of declension.

Masculine and neuter substantives, adopted from modern languages, for the most part retain the sign *s* in the plural number ; e. g. Genie's, Font's, Lord's, Pudding's, Solo's, Kasino's.

All feminine substantives, and a great many masculine names of persons, which are adjective-substantives, or analogous to them, have the singular and plural numbers declined in the modern form. Such are, in particular, all names of persons which have the terminations *at*, *ant*, *ent*, *if*, from the

Latin *atus, ans, ens, icus*; and *ast, ist, ost, et, it, ot, and e*; e. g. *Advocat, Prälat, Proteſtant, Student, Klient, Katholik, Phantaſt, Methodiſt, Staroſt, Poet, Jeſuit, Idiot, Eleve, Bagabunde, Antipode*;—the compounds of the Greek *λόγος, σοφός, νόμος*, &c.; e. g. *Theolog, Philoſoph, Aſtronom, Demagog, Geograph, Patriarch, Anthropophag, and Tyrann*. The ſubſtantives, *Elephant, Konſonant, Quadrant, Quotient, Dukat, Planet, Komet*, though not names of perſons, on account of the analogy of their form alſo take the modern form of declenſion.

Obſervation.—The ſign of the dative caſe, *e*, is more frequently dropped in foreign ſubſtantives, than in ſubſtantives originally German (§ 108).

Some foreign ſubſtantives, which have their original form unaltered, are not declined in the ſingular number, e. g. *Raſuſ, Kleruſ*; or aſſume only the ſign of the genitive caſe *ſ*, e. g. *deſ Individuumſ, deſ Faſtumſ*. They retain in all caſes of the plural number the original form of the nominative plural, e. g. *Raſuſ, Modi, Faſta, Faſta*; or aſſume in the plural the German termination *en*; e. g. *die Individuen, die Faſten*.

Declenſion of Proper Names.

§ 114.

When proper names of perſons are uſed in the plural number, they are declined as common names; viz. thoſe of male perſons in the ancient form, and thoſe of females in the modern; e. g. *die Heinriche, die Marien*. In the ſingular number, names of males, and thoſe of females which have not the termination *e*, have only the genitive caſe pointed out by the ſign *ſ*; e. g. *Heinrichſ, Elifabethſ*. The names of females with the termination *e*, take *enſ* in the genitive, and *en* in the dative and accuſative caſes; e. g.—

N. Marie,	G. Marienſ,	D. & A. Marien.
Karoline,	Karolinenſ,	Karolinen.

Thoſe names of males, the final ſound of which is an *ſ*, *ß*, *ſch*, or *r*, or *z*, alſo take the ſign *enſ* in the genitive caſe; e. g. *Voß-enſ, Marx-enſ, Friß-enſ*. Foreign names which have the unaccented terminations *aſ, eſ, iſ, uſ*, admit of no ſign of declenſion; and all caſes of proper names, which cannot be marked by inflection, are denoted by the definite article (§ 103); e. g. *deſ Eliaſ, deſ Herreſ, der Doriſ, dem Plato*.

Proper names of countries and places, like names of persons, have only the genitive marked by the sign §; e. g. Wiens§, Berlins§. When a final §, §, §, or §, does not permit the sign of the genitive case to be assumed, or whenever another case is to be distinguished, the proper name is placed in apposition to a common name; e. g. der Stadt Mainz, der Festung Schweidnitz, dem Königreich Spanien.

CHAPTER III.—Of Adjectives.

§ 115.

ADJECTIVES are either primary (§ 35) or secondary derivatives (§ 49, 50, 51); the latter including participles (§ 77), and adverbs of manner used adjectively (§ 52). In general all adjectives may be employed both as *predicative* adjectives, e. g. der Feind ist furchtbar, the enemy is dreadful, and as *attributive* adjectives, e. g. der furchtbare Feind, the dreadful enemy (§ 7). The following adjectives however are used only in the predicative relation: bereit, ready; feind, hostile; gar, made, done; gänge und gebe, current; eingedenk, remembering; gehaß, hating; getrost, of good cheer; gram, bearing hatred; irre, wrong, astray; kund, known; leid, distressing; nuß, useful; and a few more (ich bin bereit, er ist mir feind, &c.) Some adjectives, on the other hand, can only be placed in the attributive relation: these are, the superlatives of adjectives; the secondary derivatives made by the affix en (§ 49), e. g. golden, golden; the adjective names of nations, e. g. Deutsch, Englisch, Französisch; and many other secondary derivatives made by the affixes isch and lich (§ 50, 52), e. g. diebisch, thievish; heuchlerisch, hypocritical; räuberisch, rapacious; nordisch, northern; anfänglich, original; nächtlich, nightly; jährlich, annual; täglich, daily; eidlich, deposed upon oath; mündlich, oral; wörtlich, verbal; ordinal numerals, and the adjectives dortig, obig, gestrig, heutig, jeßig, made from the adverbs dort, there; oben, above; gestern, yesterday; heute, today; jeßt, now; (die schönste Frau, ein goldner Ring, die diebische Elster, der dritte Tag, die jeßige Zeit:)—See § 158.

§ 116.

In the attributive adjective, the gender, number, and case of the substantive referred to are expressed by the *declension* of the adjective. The same applies also to adjectives used substantively (§ 7); e. g. ein Gelehrter, a learned man; eine Gelehrte, a learned woman; einer Gelehrten, of a learned woman: ein Deutscher, a German; eine Deutsche, a German woman.

The predicative adjective admits of no inflection; e. g. die Frau ist gelehrt.

Adjectives, like substantives (§ 106), have two forms of declension, viz. the *ancient* and the *modern*; all adjectives being susceptible of both forms.

In general, an adjective standing alone before a substantive takes the ancient form of declension; when, on the other hand, it is preceded by an article or pronoun declined after the ancient form, the adjective takes the modern form. The principles of this practice, and the exceptions to which it is subject, are explained in the Syntax (§ 170). The ancient form of declension presents a greater variety of terminations than the modern, as may be seen by the following paradigm:

Ancient form.

	Singular.			Plural.
	masc.	fem.	neut.	in all genders.
N.	gut-er	gut-e	gut-es	gut-e
G.	gut-es (en)	gut-er	gut-es (en)	gut-er
D.	gut-em	gut-er	gut-em	gut-en
Ac.	gut-en	gut-e	gut-es	gut-e.

Modern form.

	Singular.			Plural.
	masc.	fem.	neut.	in all genders.
N.	gut-e	gut-e	gut-e	gut-en
G.	gut-en	gut-en	gut-en	gut-en
D.	gut-en	gut-en	gut-en	gut-en
Ac.	gut-en	gut-e	gut-e	gut-en.

The gen. sing. masc. and neut. in the ancient form, almost always takes the sign *en* of the modern form instead of *es*, which properly belongs to it; e. g. *rothen Weines*, of red wine; *frischen Brodes*, of new bread; *kalten Wassers*, of cold water. The termination of the ancient form has been retained only in some expressions; e. g. *gutes Muthes sein*, to be in good spirits; *gerades Weges*, straitway; *heutiges Tages*, now-a-days.

When adjectives with one of the unaccented terminations *er*, *el*, *en*, as *edel*, *eben*, *bitter* (§ 35), are inflected, the vowel *e* in those terminations is commonly dropped for the sake of eurythmy (§ 17); e. g. *ein edler Mann*, a magnanimous man; *ein ebner Weg*, a flat road; *bitter Mandeln*, bitter almonds.

Comparison of Adjectives.

§ 117.

There are in German, as in English, two forms of comparison,—viz. the *simple* comparison, e. g. in *rein*, *reiner*, *der reinste*, pure, purer, the purest; and the *compound* comparison, e. g. in *glücklich*, *mehr glücklich*, *höchst glücklich*, fortunate, more fortunate, most fortunate. The simple comparison is made by the termination *er* for the comparative, and *est* for the superlative degree. In the termination of the superlative degree, eurythmy requires the vowel *e* to be dropped when the final sound of the adjective is not a lingual consonant (*d*, *t*, *s*, *ß*, *sch*, *z*, *st*); e. g. *schönster*, the finest, instead of *schön-est-er*; *liebster*, the dearest, instead of *lieb-est-er*: but on the other hand, *breitester*, the broadest; *süßester*, the sweetest; *kürzester*, the shortest. In participles, however, which have the unaccented termination *et* or *end*, the vowel *e* is also omitted; e. g. *der gebildetste*, the most accomplished; *der reizendste*, the most charming: and the practice is variable in adjectives, the final sound of which is a vowel or a double liquid consonant; e. g. *frei*, free; *froh*, happy; *dünn*, thin; *voll*, full; *starr*, stiff.

In the comparative degree of those adjectives which have one of the unaccented terminations *el*, *er*, *en* (§ 35), the vowel of that termination is commonly dropped as in their declension (§ 116); e. g. *edler*, *bitterer*, *ebner*.

The vowels *a*, *o*, and *u*, are modified in the comparative and superlative degree of those adjectives which are primary derivatives (§ 35); e. g. in *stark*, strong, *stärker*, der *stärkste*; *fromm*, pious, *frömm*, der *frömmste*; *klug*, wise, *klüger*, der *klügste*. The following however are exceptions:

bunt, speckled.	lahm, lame.	schlaff, slack.
falsch, fallow.	laß, tired.	schlanf, slender.
fade, insipid.	lose, loose.	schroff, rough.
flach, flat.	matt, wearied.	starr, stiff.
fröh, merry.	platt, flat.	stolz, proud.
gerade, straight.	plump, clumsy.	straff, stiff.
glatt, smooth.	roh, raw.	stumm, dumb.
hohl, hollow.	rund, round.	stumpf, blunt.
hold, favourable.	sacht, slow.	toll, mad.
kahl, bald.	sänft, soft.	voll, full.
knapp, narrow.	fatt, satisfied.	zäh, tame.
farg, stingy.		

As also those which have the diphthong *au*; e. g. *rauh*, rough; *taub*, deaf. Practice is variable with regard to *bläß*, pale, and *gesund*, sound. The adjectives *falsch* (*fal-isch*), false, and *morsch*, (*mor-isch*), mellow, are secondary derivatives, and therefore their vowel is not modified.

The following forms of comparison are defective or irregular:—*cher*, earlier; *der erste*, the first; from the obsolete adjective *eh*, Engl. *ere* (*ear* in *early*);—*minder*, less; *der mindeste*, the least; from the obsolete *min*;—*der letzte*, the last; from the obsolete *lat* (Engl. *late*). *Besser*, better, *der beste*, the best; and *mehr*, more, *der mehrste* or *meiste*, the most; formed from the obsolete *haß* and *meh*, are employed as degrees of comparison of *gut*, good, and *viel*, much. *Hoch*, high, makes comparative *höher*: *nahe*, nigh, near, has superlative *der nächste*.

The adjectives, *außer*, outer; *inner*, inner; *vorder*, fore; *hinter*, hind; *ober*, upper; *unter*, under; form only the superlatives, *der äußerste*, *innerste*, *vorderste*, *hinterste*, *oberste*, *unterste*, extreme, innermost, foremost, hindmost. The superlatives, *der erste*, the first, and *der letzte*, the last, make the new comparative forms *ersterer* and *lesterer*, which in their signification correspond to the English *former* and *latter*; and the compara-

tive *mehr* forms another comparative, *mehrere*, which is used only in the plural number, and employed as an indefinite numeral in the signification of the English *several*.

Comparatives and superlatives are declined like other adjectives.

§ 118.

In the compound form of comparison, the comparative is, as in English, formed by *mehr*, more, and the superlative by *am meisten* (*meisten*), most, or by *höchst*, highest; e. g. *gelehrt*, *mehr gelehrt*, *am meisten* or *höchst gelehrt*. Originally the simple form of comparison was for the most part applied to primary, and the compound to secondary derivatives, as is the case in English: but now the simple form is commonly applied to secondary derivatives also; e. g. *glücklich*, *fruchtbarer*, *der glücklichste*, *der fruchtbarste*, more, the most, fortunate, fruitful. In adjectives, however, formed by the affix *ig*, this form is avoided, being offensive to eurythmy.

In the superlative degree the simple and compound forms serve to distinguish a difference of signification; the simple form being employed to express the *superlative of comparison*, —e. g. *der wichtigste Mann im Lande*, the most important man in the country; *das langweiligste Buch*, the most tiresome book (of any); —while the compound form denotes the *superlative of eminence*, e. g. *die höchste wichtige Nachricht*, the very important news; *eine höchst langweilige Gesellschaft*, a most tiresome company. The simple form, therefore, never occurs after an indefinite article.

CHAPTER IV.—Of Pronouns.

§ 119.

PRONOUNS are words which indicate persons and things only as they are *related* to the person who speaks, without expressing their *notion* (§ 8, 10). Thus the sentence, *I* (the speaker) *will introduce you* (the person spoken to) *to him* (the person spoken

of), distinguishes merely the relations of *I*, *you*, and *he*, without saying who *I*, *you*, and *he* are. Those pronouns by which only the relation of personality, (i. e. of the person speaking, spoken to, or spoken of,) is expressed, are termed *personal* pronouns. *Demonstrative* pronouns, again, are those which, in a person or thing spoken of, express not only the relation of personality, but a *demonstrative* relation, i. e. a relation either to the speaker, or to another notion, establishing a distinction from other persons or things; e. g. *that* (the thing meant or pointed at by the speaker) *is beautiful*; *those* who took physic recovered. *Interrogative* pronouns are those by which the demonstrative relation of a person or thing is asked; e. g. *what* is beautiful? *who* recovered? When the demonstrative relation of a person or thing refers to another notion (those, who took physic, recovered), the notion referred to is always expressed by an accessory sentence (who took physic), which is connected with the principal sentence (those recovered) by means of an interrogative pronoun (who); which in that case is termed a *relative* pronoun*.

Personal, demonstrative, interrogative, and relative pronouns, thus applied to persons or things, are termed *substantive-pronouns*; e. g. *he* told me; *who* is there? When, on the other hand, they at the same time express an attributive relation to another substantive, they are termed *adjective-pronouns*; e. g. *his* father (the father of him); *this* book. They are *adverbial* pronouns, when they at the same time express a relation of place, of time, or of manner; e. g. he lives *here*, or *there*; *when* did you see him? *thus* he spoke. From personal pronouns, however, no adverbial pronouns can be made.

Besides the pronouns now enumerated, which take their origin from variations of the personal pronouns, there are some words, as *some*, *none*, which also express persons or things in an indefinite manner, without giving their notions: these are termed *indefinite* pronouns.

* J. Grimm Deutsche Grammat. 1 Aufl. 1 B. p. 307.

1. *Personal Pronouns.*

a. *Substantive Personal Pronouns.*

§ 120.

The German substantive personal pronouns are, *ich*, I; *du*, thou; *er*, he; *sie*, she; *es*, it. They are declined as follows:

Singular.

1.	2.	3.		
N. <i>ich</i> , I,	<i>du</i> , thou,	<i>er</i> , he,	<i>sie</i> , she,	<i>es</i> , it,
G. <i>meiner</i> , of me,	<i>deiner</i> , of thee,	<i>seiner</i> , of him,	<i>ihrer</i> , of her,	<i>seiner</i> , of it,
D. <i>mir</i> , to me,	<i>dir</i> , to thee,	<i>ihm</i> , to him,	<i>ihr</i> , to her,	<i>ihm</i> , to it,
Ac. <i>mich</i> , me.	<i>dich</i> , thee.	<i>ihn</i> , him.	<i>sie</i> , her.	<i>es</i> , it.

Plural.

1.	2.	3.
N. <i>wir</i> , we,	<i>ihr</i> , you,	<i>sie</i> , they,
G. <i>unser</i> , of us,	<i>euer</i> , of you,	<i>ihrer</i> , of them,
D. <i>uns</i> , to us,	<i>euch</i> , to you,	<i>ihnen</i> , to them,
Ac. <i>uns</i> , us.	<i>euch</i> , you.	<i>sie</i> , them.

In the place of the genitive *meiner*, *deiner*, *seiner*, the obsolete forms *mein*, *dein*, *sein*, are sometimes employed; e. g. *vergiss mein nicht*, forget me not; *gedenke mein*, remember me*.

The forms of the genitive case, *meines*, *deines*, *seines*, *unseres*, *eures*, *ihrer*, occur only in the expressions compounded with *gleichen*; e. g. *meines gleichen*, my equals; *seines gleichen*, his equals†.

Personal pronouns are *reflective*, if the person or thing denoted by the pronoun is the same with the subject of the sentence; e. g. *ich fleide mich*, I dress myself; *du rühmest dich*, thou praisest thyself. In the dative and accusative cases of the third personal pronoun, the reflexive signification is always pointed out by the reflexive pronoun *sich* (Lat. *sibi*, *se*, himself, herself, itself, themselves), which stands for the dative and

* *Schonst mein. Sch.*

Denkt er noch mein? Sch.

Wird sein der Blick nicht schonen? Schlegel.

Gute Botenschaft harret dein. Sch.

† *Wer in der Kommittee ist meines gleichen? Nur Könige sind meine Peers. Sch.*
Verordnet ist, daß jeder Angeklagte durch Geschworne von seines gleichen selbst gerichtet werden. Sch.

accusative cases singular and plural in all genders; e. g. *er ist sich der nächste*, he is nearest to himself; *sie lobt sich*, she praises herself; *sie beschimpfen sich*, they disgrace themselves. The genitives *seiner* and *ihrer* are employed both in the reflexive and in the not reflexive sense: *er (sie) ist seiner (ihrer) einge-denst*, may mean both 'he (she) remembers *himself (herself)*,' and also 'he (she) remembers *him (her)*,' i. e. another person.

In the plural number the reflective pronouns are frequently employed in a reciprocal signification (§ 65). In order, however, to distinguish the reciprocal from the reflexive signification, the adverb *einander*, one another, is added to the reflexive pronoun, or used instead of it; e. g. *sie beschimpfen sich einander*, or *sie beschimpfen einander*, they disgrace one another; *ihr kennt einander*, you know one another.

§ 121.

Till within some centuries the Germans, like the French and the English, addressed each other in familiar conversation by the second person singular, and in formal intercourse by the second person plural. Since that period another mode of address has been adopted, as expressive of respect, viz. by the third person plural (*sie*), whilst inferiors were and still are addressed in the third person singular (*er*, *sie*).

Although the Germans adopted these modern forms, they still retained the ancient form: there exists, therefore, a considerable variety in accommodating the mode of address to the different relations of superiority, inferiority, friendship, and love. The use of the third personal pronoun in the plural, *sie*, is generally received in the polite conversation of people of education; and even inferiors, if not in dependence on the speaker, would be offended if otherwise addressed. The second personal pronoun in the plural, *ihr*, is usual among peasants and other people of lower condition, and is never used by others except in addressing persons of that description. This practice is, however, more common in the country than in towns. The third personal pronoun in the singular, *er* for male and *sie* for female persons, is used only in addressing inferiors, particularly servants and others, who are dependent upon the speaker: it is also employed by the country people

of some German provinces in speaking to one another. Being considered however as indicating a want of respect, this mode of address should scarcely ever be used. The natural address, *Du*, is much more usual at the present day in German than in other modern languages. As it excludes all ceremonious formality, it is reserved for relations of confidence, friendship, and love. We use it in addressing our family, our best friends, and the Supreme Being *.

Observation.—In addressing a person in writing, we always give a capital letter to the pronoun, personal or possessive, referring to that person; e. g. *ich bitte Sie* (*Dich, Euch*) um *Ihre* (*Deine, Euer*) *Freundschaft*, I beg for your friendship.

§ 122.

The third personal pronoun in the neuter gender, when it expresses the notion of a *thing*, is used only in the accusative case (*es*); and in the other cases a demonstrative pronoun stands in place of it; e. g. *ich bedarf dessen* (*des Geldes*) *nicht*, I am not in want of *it* (the money); *ich kann damit nichts machen*, I can do nothing *with it*. The cases *seiner, ihm*, are consequently employed only when a person is understood.

From the definite pronoun *es*, which represents a definite person or thing,—e. g. *es* (*das Kind*) *schreiet*, *es* (*das Gold*) *glänzt*,—the *indefinite* pronoun *es* must be distinguished, which implies the notion of a thing in the most general and indefinite sense; e. g. *es regnet*, it rains; *es wird getanzt*, they are dancing (§ 67). The use of this indefinite pronoun *es* is more extensive in German than in English; and it is frequently applied even to notions of persons, not only without regard to gender,—e. g. *es ist der Arzt*, it is the physician; *es ist meine Mutter*, it is my mother,—but even when they are in the plural; e. g. *es sind Franzosen*, they are Frenchmen †.

The pronoun *es* is frequently contracted, for the sake of eurythmy, with other words standing before it; and the omission of the vowel *e* is then marked by an apostrophe ('); e. g. *gib's mir*, give it me; *nimm's hin*, take it. This contraction

* Schiller makes Don Carlos say to his friend Posa, "Noch eine Bitte: Nenne mich Du. Ich habe Deinesgleichen stets beneidet um dieses Vorrecht der Vertraulichkeit."

† *Es* sind nicht eben schlechte Männer. Sch.

is commonly made use of when *es* is preceded or followed by other unaccented syllables; e. g. in *ist's gewiß?* is it certain? *hast du's gesehen?* have you seen it? *er hat's mir gesagt*, he told it to me (§ 17).

b. Adjective Personal Pronouns (Possessive Pronouns).

§ 123.

From the genitive case singular and plural of each substantive personal pronoun (§ 120), a corresponding *adjective*-pronoun is formed; so that there are in German the following adjective personal (or possessive) pronouns: *mein*, my; *dein*, thy; *sein*, his, its; *ihr*, her; *unser*, our; *euer*, your; *ihr*, their.

They are inflected like other adjectives (§ 116); e. g. *meines Vaters*, of my father; *deiner Mutter*, of thy mother; with this peculiarity, that in the nom. sing. masc. and neut., and in the acc. neut., the termination of inflection (*er*, *es*) is dropped; e. g. *mein Vater*, *dein Haus*. It is retained, however, when these possessive pronouns, like other adjectives, are used substantively (§ 7); e. g. *mein Hut ist weiß*, *deiner ist schwarz*, and *der seine ist grün*, my hat is white, thine is black, and his is green; *mein Kind ist krank*, *das deine und ihres ist gesund*, my child is ill, thine and hers are in good health*.

When the possessive pronouns are to be used substantively, they frequently assume the termination *ig* (§ 49); e. g. *meinig*, *deinig*, *seinig*, *unfrig*, *eurig*, *ihrig*; in which case they always take the definite article, and are consequently declined in the modern form (§ 116); e. g. *nimm mein Messer*, *du hast das deinige verloren*, und *ich bedarf des meinigen nicht*, take my knife, you have lost yours, and I do not want mine.

• 2. *Demonstrative Pronouns.*

a. Substantive Demonstrative Pronouns.

§ 124.

The demonstrative pronoun, *der*, *die*, *das*, originally has the value of substantive-pronouns (§ 119), which however it has

* *Wer du auch bist, hinfort wiest du der Unstre sein. Sch.*

Sie alle gehen ihres Weges fort an ihr Geschäft—Meines ist der Noth. Sch.

in English retained only in the neuter gender, *that*; e. g. *that is copper*, *daß ist Kupfer*; the German masculine and feminine substantive-pronouns, *der*, *die*, being supplied in English by the substantive personal pronouns, *he* and *she*; e. g. *ich meinte den*, I meant *him*; *der, welcher klug handelt, verdient Lob*, *he* who acts wisely deserves praise; *die welche du suchst ist nicht hier*, *she* whom you seek is not here. The pronoun *der*, *die*, *daß*, is however also used adjectively, and then corresponds to the English adjective-pronouns *that*, *this*, *these*, *those*; e. g. *der Baum trägt keine Frucht*, *that* (or *this*) tree bears no fruit; *der Baum, welcher keine Frucht trägt*, *that* tree which, &c. The demonstrative pronoun *der*, *die*, *daß*, is moreover employed as a relative pronoun (see § 130).

Originally the pronouns *der*, *die*, *daß*, had throughout the ancient form of inflection, which has been retained when it performs the office of the definite article (§ 100). The compound adverbs *deßhalb*, *deswegen*, therefore; and *deßgleichen*, like that; *dergleichen*, like those; are remains of this form of inflection, which now is applied only when the pronoun is used adjectively; e. g. *ich erinnere mich deß Tages*, I remember that day; *ich traue dem Menschen nicht*, I do not trust that man. When, on the other hand, it is employed as a substantive demonstrative, or as a relative pronoun, the gen. sing. masc. and neut. is *dessen*, fem. *deren*; the gen. plur. *deren*, and dat. plur. *denen*; e. g. *ich erinnere mich dessen*, I recollect that; *ich erinnere mich deren nicht*, I do not recollect those; *Männer, deren Namen unsterblich sind*, men whose names are immortal; *ich traue denen nicht, die jedem gefallen wollen*, I do not trust those who wish to please every body. When the substantive demonstrative pronoun refers to an adjective sentence following, it has gen. plur. *derer*; e. g. *meide den Umgang derer welche dir schmeicheln*, es gibt *deren* viele, avoid the conversation of those who flatter you, there are many of them. However, in the substantive demonstrative pronoun the gen. sing. *deß* is also used; e. g. *wir sind deß gewiß*, we are sure of that.

§ 125.

Der, *die*, *daß*, used as a substantive demonstrative pronoun, has a very general and indefinite signification; *der* and *die*

being limited to notions of persons, whilst *daß* expresses the notions of things; e. g. *der ist krank*, that man is ill; *die ist schön*, that woman is handsome; *daß ist Geld*, that is gold; *ich thue daß was mir gefällt*, I do what I like. The demonstrative *daß*, like the indefinite pronoun *eß* (§ 122), comes to be applied even to the notions of persons, without regard to gender and number; e. g. *daß ist ein Zigeuner*, that is a gipsy; *daß sind meine Schwestern*, these are my sisters; *daß sind Käfer*, these are beetles*.

When the substantive demonstrative pronoun *daß* is connected with a preposition, it assumes the shape of the adverb *da* (*dar*), there, and is contracted with the preposition into the forms *daran*, thereupon; *davon*, thereof; *dafür*, therefore, &c. (see § 128); e. g. *daran habe ich nicht gedacht*, I did not think of that; *davon weiß ich Nichts*, of that I know nothing; *ich fürchte mich davor*, I am afraid of that; *ich bin damit zufrieden*, I am satisfied with that. These compound forms have the same indefinite signification as the substantive-pronoun *daß*, from which they are made, and are employed especially in order to denote an indefinite notion expressed by an accessory substantive sentence; e. g. *was du sagst, davon weiß ich nichts*, I know nothing of what you say; *denke daran, daß du nicht mehr in Kind bist*, consider that you are no more a child; *forge dafür, daß jeder sein Theil erhalte*, take care that each may have his share (see § 193).

The substantive demonstrative pronoun *der*, *die*, *daß*, and the compound forms *daran*, *daraus*, *dabei*, *dafür*, *davon*, &c. are generally used in place of the third personal pronoun *er*, *sie*, *eß*, in the genitive and dative cases; or connected with prepositions, when notions of *things*, especially of materials, and abstract notions, are referred to; e. g. *er bot mir Geld an, aber ich bedarf dessen nicht*, he offered me money, but I am not in want of it; *gib ihm Wein, er bedarf dessen*, give him wine, he is in want of it; *er sammelt Gemälde, und er hat deren viele gekauft*, he collects pictures, and he has purchased many

* *Daß ist deine Tochter.* Sch.

Daß ist ein Feiger. Sch.

Daß sind meine Richter. Sch.

(of them); er spricht von der Musik, hat aber keinen Geschmack daran, he talks of music, but has no taste for it*.

Notions of persons cannot be expressed in this manner: we say, ich finde einen Freund an ihm (and not daran), I find a friend in him: only the genitive dessen, deren, is sometimes used for the sake of perspicuity in place of the possessive pronoun sein and ihr, even when persons and not things are referred to; because the repetition of these pronouns, which, like the personal pronouns seiner and ihrer, are used both with and without a reflexive signification, would sometimes produce an ambiguity of expression; e. g. er beschenkte seinen Vetter und dessen Sohn, he presented his cousin and his (the cousin's) son; sie beschenkte ihre Schwester und deren (not ihre) Tochter, she made presents to her sister and to her (the sister's) daughter.

The demonstrative relation being a more definite one than mere personal relation (§ 119), a greater stress of accentuation is generally laid upon the demonstrative pronoun der, die, daß, than upon the corresponding personal pronouns er, sie, es. When, however, the demonstrative pronoun performs the office of the definite article (§ 100), it is unaccented; and, for the sake of eurythmy, the definite article is frequently contracted with monosyllabic prepositions (§ 17). Thus daß is contracted with an, in, auf, durch, für, vor, um, into anß, inß, auß, durchß, fürß, vorß, umß; dem with an, in, bei, von, zu, into an, in, beim, vom, zum; and der with zu into zur. The contractions überß, unterß, überm, unterm, hinterm, vorm, are offensive to euphony and therefore improper.

§ 126.

The demonstrative relation implied by the pronoun der, die, daß, is expressed in a more definite way by the compound demonstrative pronouns derselbe, dieselbe, dasselbe, and derjenige, diejenige, dasjenige. In each of them, both components are

* Seine Stühle waren uralt, aber er lud täglich Jemanden ein darauf zu sitzen. *Göthe.*

Wo nehmen wir ein Pferd her? Wir werden nicht lange darnach suchen. *Göthe.*

So scherzhaft die Begebenheit schien, so waren die Betrachtungen dabei doch zu ernsthaft. *Göthe.*

Er hatte sein Vermögen gestreck gemacht; einen Theil davon hatte er in die Handlung gegeben. *Göthe.*

inflected; the first component, *der*, *die*, *daß*, taking the inflection of the definite article (§ 100); and the other component, *selbe* and *jenige*, that of adjectives in the modern form (§ 116). Both compound pronouns in the same way, as *der*, *die*, *daß*, are used substantively as well as adjectively; e. g. *derjenige*, *der Muth hat*, *fomme*, let him who has courage come; *ich habe dasselbe gethan*, *was er gethan hat*, I did the same that he did; and *diejenigen Thiere, welche im Wasser leben*, those animals which live in water; *derselbe Dieb, der mich bestohlen hat*, the same thief who robbed me. Both of them imply a relation to a notion expressed by an accessory adjective sentence; *derjenige* is generally employed when this relation is to be pointed out; *derselbe*, like *the same* in English, being reserved rather for the signification of exclusion; e. g. *derjenige, der dich bestohlen hat, ist sehr schlau*, he who has robbed you is very cunning; and *derselbe der dich bestohlen hat, hat auch mich bestohlen*, the same who robbed you (no other) has robbed me also; *er hat dasjenige gethan, was er thun mußte*, he has done that which he was obliged to do; and *er hat dasselbe gethan, was du gethan hast*, he has done the same which you did (nothing else). *Derjenige* is used, especially in written language, instead of the adjective demonstrative *der*; because in writing, e. g. *der Mensch*, that man, *die Menschen*, those men, the demonstrative pronoun cannot be distinguished from the definite article *der* by means of accentuation.

The compound demonstrative pronoun *derselbe*, like the simple demonstrative pronoun *der*, is frequently employed in place of the third personal pronoun, and of the possessive pronouns *sein* and *ihr* (§ 125). This compound pronoun, pointing out persons or things in a more definite way than either the simple demonstrative or the third personal pronoun, is employed especially when perspicuity requires that two subjects expressed in a preceding sentence should be accurately distinguished from one another. In this case *derselbe* is commonly applied to the subject *last* mentioned; e. g. *der Vater schrieb seinem Sohne, derselbe müsse nach London reisen*, the father wrote to his son, that he (the son) must go to London; *er kam mit seinem Bruder und sprach von den Ange-*

legenheiten desselben, he came with his brother, and spoke about his (the brother's) affairs; sie sprach von ihrer Tochter, und erzählte mir von den Leiden derselben, she spoke of her daughter, and gave me an account of her (the daughter's) sufferings.

The indeclinable word *selbst*, for which in popular language *selber* is also used, is not, like the English *self*, employed to express a reflective relation (§ 120). It is generally added to substantives and substantive-pronouns, in order to express exclusion of another subject; e. g. *der Arzt selbst ist krank*, the physician himself is a patient; *er kann sich selbst nicht helfen*, he cannot cure even himself; *ich selbst habe es gethan*, I myself (no other person) have done it; *du selbst hast es gesagt*, you yourself (no other person) have told it *. When *selbst* stands before the substantive or substantive-pronoun, and has the subordinate accent, it implies the same as *even* in English; e. g. *selbst der König konnte ihn nicht retten*, even the king was not able to save him; *selbst seine Feinde bewunderten ihn*, even his enemies admired him †.

The adjective forms *selber*, *selbe*, *selbes*, and *selbiger*, *selbige*, *selbiges*, the same, are now obsolete.

b. Adjective Demonstrative Pronouns.

§ 127.

The adjective demonstrative pronouns *dieser*, *diese*, *dieses*, *this*, and *jener*, *jene*, *jenes*, *that*, agree in their inflection with other adjectives, and always take the ancient form, because they are never preceded by any article or other pronoun (§ 116). *Dieser* is applied to those persons or things which are nearer to the speaker in point of time and of space: *jener*, on the other hand, to those which are more distant from the speaker; e. g. *dieser Hut gehört mir, und jener dir*, this hat is mine, and that is yours; *dießseits und jenseits des Stromes*, on this and on the other side of the river; *in dieser und in jener*

* Du selbst mußt richten, du allein. Sch.

Ich selber kann sie retten. Sch.

Du selber sollst uns sagen was du vorhast. Sch.

† Einen Verblendeten erndet' ich, den selbst des Tages volles Licht nicht heilet. Sch.

Welt, in this and in the other world; in diesem Augenblicke und an jenem Tage, in this moment and on that day (the last day of judgement). The English expression, *the former* and *the latter*, are therefore commonly rendered in German by *jener* and *dieser*.

The adjective-pronouns *dieser* and *jener* are frequently used substantively, like other adjectives (§ 7); e. g. *dieser ist jung* und *jener ist alt*, this man is young and that man is old: but then we avoid the use of the genitive cases *dieses*, *jenes*, *dieser*, because they are easily confounded with other cases.

The neuter pronoun *dieses* used substantively is, like the indefinite *es* (§ 122) and the demonstrative *das* (§ 125), frequently applied to the most general and indefinite notion of a subject, without distinction of gender and number; and in this signification the nominative and accusative *dieses* are commonly contracted into *dieß*; e. g. *dieß ist eine Rose*, this is a rose; *dieß ist eine Sache von Wichtigkeit*, this is a matter of importance; *dieß sind arme Leute*, these are poor people. When the pronoun of the neuter gender *dieses*, used substantively, and applied to notions of things, is to be connected with prepositions, its place is usually taken by the adverbial pronoun *hier* (see § 128), which is contracted with the preposition into the forms *hieran*, *hieraus*, *hiervon*, *hiermit*, &c., analogous to the forms *daran*, *daraus*, *davon*, &c. (§ 125); e. g. *hieran erkenne ich ihn*, by this (hereby) I know him; *hierin hat er Recht*, in this (herein) he is right; *hiervon weiß ich Nichts*, of this I know nothing; *ich zwingen ihn hiermit*, I force him by this.

The adjective demonstrative pronoun *solcher*, *solche*, *solches*, (*so-lich*,) such, which is formed from the adverbial demonstrative pronoun *so*, so, thus (see § 128), takes the adjective declension of either the ancient or the modern form, according as it either stands alone, or is preceded by an article in which the ancient form is expressed (§ 116): it denotes the species or kind of persons or things. When it denotes a species consisting of individuals, it has before it the indefinite article; e. g. *ein solcher Mann*, such a man, *eines solchen Mannes*; *ein solches Pferd*, such a horse: when, on the other hand, it denotes a species of materials or of abstract notions, it admits

of no article; e. g. *solcher Wein*, such wine; *solche Milch*, such milk; *solche Bescheidenheit*, such modesty. In the same way it stands without an article in the plural; e. g. *solche Männer*, gen. *solcher Männer*. When the article is taken, it may also be placed after the pronoun, as in English; but in that case the termination of inflection is dropped in the pronoun; e. g. *solch ein Mensch*, *solch eines Menschen*. The sign of inflection is sometimes dropped also, if standing before an adjective attributive; e. g. *solch große Güte*, so great a kindness.

c. Adverbial Demonstrative Pronouns.

§ 128.

The adverbial demonstrative pronouns (or *demonstrative adverbs*) are, *da*, *dort*, there; *dann* (*denn*), then; derived from *der*;—*hier*, here; *her*, hither; *hin*, thither (§ 139); derived from an obsolete demonstrative pronoun *hir* (Lat. *hic*);—and *so*, so, thus; formed from another obsolete demonstrative pronoun (Gothic *sa*, Anglo-Saxon *re*). The adverb *heute*, today, is also formed from the obsolete *hir*. *Hier*, *hin*, *her*, *da*, *dort*, are adverbs of place; *dann* is an adverb of time; and *so* an adverb of manner. *Dann* and *so* however, like the English *then*, frequently imply a relation of causality; e. g. *wenn er es gesagt hat, so or dann muß es wahr sein*, if he has said it, (then) it must be true.

The adverbs *da*, *hier*, *her*, and *hin*, are contracted with prepositions into the forms *daran*, thereon; *daraus*, therefrom; *darin*, therein; *davon*, thereof; *dafür*, for that; *hieran*, hereon; *hierauf*, hereupon; *hierin*, herein; *hiefür*, for this; *herab*, *herauf*, *herein*, *heraus*, hither down, up, in, out; *hinab*, *hinauf*, *hinein*, *hinaus*, thither down, up, in, out (§ 125, 127). In *da* the final *r* of its original form *dar* is retained, whenever the initial of the preposition is a vowel; e. g. in *daran*, *darin*: and in *hier* the *r* is dropped, whenever the preposition has a consonant for its initial; e. g. in *hiemit*, *hiedurch*, *hiez*. The adverbs *da* and *hier* are also contracted with *her* and *hin* into,—*daher*, thence; *dahin*, thither; *hierher*, hither.

3. *Interrogative and Relative Pronouns.*

a. Substantive Interrogative and Relative Pronouns.

§ 129.

The substantive-pronouns *wer*, who, and *was*, what, are, like the substantive demonstrative *der*, *die*, *das* (§ 125), applied only to the most general and indefinite notions: viz. *wer*, to the notions of persons, without distinction of sex, and *was* to the notions of things; e. g. *Wer ist da?* who is there? *Was bringst du?* what do you bring? Both pronouns on that account have no plural number. They are declined as follows:—

N.	<i>wer</i> ,	<i>was</i> .
G.	<i>wessen</i> ,	<i>wessen</i> (<i>weß</i>).
D.	<i>wem</i> .	
Ac.	<i>wen</i> ,	<i>was</i> .

Was has no dative case; and the obsolete genitive *weß* has been preserved only in *weßwegen* and *weßhalb*, wherefore.

Wer and *was* are used as relative pronouns (§ 119) only in the indefinite signification now mentioned; e. g. *wer stiehlt wird gehängt*, he who steals is hanged; *wer viel hat, gibt viel aus*, he who possesses much spends much; *ich weiß, wen du meinst*, I know whom you mean; *was lebt, bewegt sich*, what lives, moves; *ich weiß was du willst*, I know what you wish for *. *Was* however is, like *das* (§ 125), sometimes applied to persons also; e. g. *was sich sucht, findet sich*, those who seek one another will find one another †. When the relative pronoun refers to a definite person or thing expressed by a preceding substantive or substantive-pronoun, the pronouns *wer* and *was* are never used; e. g. *der Knabe welcher* or *der* (not

* *Wer Bech anrührt, besudelt sich* (a proverb).

Wer einen Herrn hat, dien' ihm pflichtmäßig. Sch.

Wer sich des Kindes Haupt zum Ziele setzte, der kann auch treffen in des Herz des Feindes. Sch.

Was fein muß, das geschehe. Sch.

Laune löst, was Laune knüpfte. Sch.

Was euch genehm ist, das ist mir gerecht. Sch.

† *Was sich noch jüngst in blut'gem Haß getrennt, das theilt entzückt die allgemeine Lust.* Sch.

wer) spielt, the boy who plays; das Wasser welches or das (not was) ich trinke, the water which I drink. The relative pronoun *was* is employed after the substantive demonstrative pronoun *das*; e. g. *ich gebe das, was ich habe*, I give what (that which) I have; *ich weiß nichts von dem, was er sagt*, I know nothing of what (that which) he says. *Wer*, on the contrary, never stands after the substantive-pronouns *der* and *die*; e. g. *der, welcher* or *der* (not *wer*) *stiehlt, wird gehängt*. After the indefinite numerals *alles*, *etwas*, *manches*, *nichts*, *viel*, *wenig* (see § 136), the relative pronoun *was* is commonly used; e. g. *nicht alles was glänzt ist Gold*, every thing that glitters is not gold; *sage mir Etwas was mich trösten könne*, tell me something which may comfort me; *der Brief enthält wenig was ich nicht schon weiß*, the letter contains very little which I do not know already *.

The substantive interrogative and relative pronoun *was* is, like the substantive demonstrative pronoun *das* (§ 125), always contracted with the prepositions into *woran*, *worin*, *wovon*, *wofür*, *wozu*, *womit*, &c. wherein, whereof, wherefore, whereto, &c. In these the pronoun takes the shape of the adverb *wo* (see § 131), which moreover assumes *r* whenever the preposition has a vowel for its initial; e. g. *wovon spricht er?* what does he speak of? *woran denkst du?* what do you think of? *ich weiß nicht, wozu es nützt*, I do not know what it is fit for. These forms, like *daran*, *darin*, &c., are only applied to notions of things, and not to notions of persons (§ 125).

In familiar intercourse *was* is frequently employed instead of *warum*; e. g. *was schlägst du mich?* why do you beat me? what do you beat me for †?

Observation.—The English pronouns *whoever*, *whatever*, *whosoever*, *whatsoever*, *whenever*, &c. are rendered in German by *wer immer*, *was immer*, *wenn immer*, &c. or by *wer auch*, &c. (see § 159).

* Dieses Haus versammelt Alles, was mir theuer ist. Sch.
Nichts lehr, was deine Hoheit nicht erkennet. Sch.

† Was bringt ihr uns das böse Zeichen in die Friedensgegend? Sch.

b. Adjective Interrogative and Relative Pronouns.

§ 130.

The adjective-pronoun *welcher*, *welche*, *welches*, like *dieser*, has the inflection of adjectives in the ancient form (§ 116). It is applied only to definite persons or things, which are either expressed, e. g. in *welcher Arzt ist der beste?* what physician is the best? *welches Buch willst du lesen?* which book do you wish to read? *sage mir, welcher Arzt der beste ist*, tell me what physician is the best; *sage mir welches Buch du lesen willst*, tell me which book will you read;—or understood, the pronoun being then considered as an adjective used substantively, e. g. *welcher (Arzt) ist der beste?* which (of them) is the best? *ich will den Arzt, welcher (Arzt) der beste ist*, I wish to have the physician who (which physician) is the best.

The genitive cases, *welches* and *welcher*, of the relative pronoun, like those of the demonstrative *dieses*, *dieser* (§ 127), are not used substantively; the genitives of the demonstrative pronoun (*dessen*, *deren*) being always employed instead of them; e. g. *der Wein dessen* or *die Nahrung deren* ich bedarf, the wine or the food of which I am in want; *der Mann, dessen Sohn gestorben ist*, the man whose son died.

The place of the adjective relative pronoun *welcher*, used substantively, is frequently taken by the demonstrative pronoun *der*, *die*, *das*; e. g. *der Wein den* ich trinke, the wine which I drink; *die Luft die* ich athme, the air which I breathe*. This pronoun is always employed after substantive personal pronouns; e. g. *ich der* (not *welcher*) *ich älter bin*, I who am older; *ihr die* (not *welche*) *ihr jung seid*, you who are young†: (comp. § 124.)

In the compound adjective interrogative pronoun *was für* *einer*, only the pronoun *einer* is inflected (see § 132): *einer* however is omitted before names of materials and before substan-

* *Wehe dem Mörder, der dahin geht in thörichtem Muth.* Sch.

Drunten saßen der Themis Töchter, die nie vergessen, die Unthätlichen, die mit Gerechtigkeit messen. Sch.

† *Sei (du) mir willkommen, der du mit mir gleiche Gefühle theilest.* Sch.

Du warst es, der ihn dorthin gestühtet hat. Sch.

tives in the plural number. As the pronoun *solcher* is a demonstrative, so *was für einer* is an interrogative for the *species* of persons or things (§ 127); e. g. *was für ein Mann?* what kind of man? *was für Wein?* what sort of wine? *was für Thiere?* what species of beasts? *was für ein Pferd ist dies?* an Araber? what description of horse is this? an Arabian? *

It may be also used substantively; e. g. *ich will dir sagen, was für einer er ist*, I'll tell you of what kind he is. The compound *welch' einer*, in which the termination of *welcher* is always dropped, has the same signification as *was für einer*: it is never used substantively, but employed especially in expressions of surprise and admiration; e. g. *welch ein Riese!* what a giant! *welch ein Ungeheuer!* what a monster! Sometimes the pronoun *einer* is omitted; e. g. *welch Gewitter!* what a thunderstorm! †

Observation.—In ancient German *so* was employed as an adjective relative pronoun; e. g. *die Güte, so sie mir erwiesen haben*, the kindness which you have showed me. This practice is now antiquated.

c. Adverbial Interrogative and Relative Pronouns.

§ 131.

The adverbial interrogative and relative pronouns (or interrogative and relative adverbs) *wo*, where; *wann* or *wenn*, when; *wie*, how; are formed from the substantive-pronoun *was* (§ 129). *Wo* is frequently used in the room of the adjective relative pronoun *welcher* with the preposition *in* or *an*; e. g. *die Stelle wo Troja stand*, the place in which, or where, Troy stood ‡. The form *wenn* is used chiefly in the conditional signification of the conjunction *if*. *Wo* makes not only the contracted forms *wo-
ran*, *worin*, &c. mentioned already (§ 129), but it also forms adverbs by contraction with *her* and *hin*, viz. *woher*, whence; *wohin*, whither, whereto; e. g. *woher kommst du?* whence do you come? *wohin gehst du?* whither are you going?

* Was ist's für einer? Es ist kein Böhme. Sch.

Was für ein Landsmann bist du? Sch.

Wüßte man, was es für Ketten sind um die man mich beneidet! Sch.

† Welch andre Sprache führt sie jetzt! Sch.

Welch Glück des Himmels hab ich weg geschleudert! Sch.

‡ Kennst du das Land, wo die Zitronen blühen? Göthe.

4. *Indefinite Pronouns.*

§ 132.

The indefinite pronouns *Einer*, *man*, *Jemand*, *Etwas*, and *Keiner*, *Niemand*, *Nichts*, are of the description of substantive-pronouns (§ 119).

Man, they, or one (French *on*); *Nichts*, nothing; and *Etwas*, something; are indeclinable. We express by *man* only the subject in the nominative case; e. g. *man sagt*, they say, it is said (French *on dit*); *man reiset schnell*, one travels fast. When another case is to be expressed, *Einer* is employed in the room of *man*; e. g. *man spräche gern mit ihm, aber er versteht Einen nicht*, one would like to speak with him, but he does not understand one. *Jemand*, somebody, and *Niemand*, nobody, have in the genitive case the termination *es*; in the dative and accusative cases they either take *en*, or no termination at all.

The indefinite pronouns *Einer*, one, somebody, and *Keiner*, nobody, are of the description of substantive-pronouns, and are applied, in the same way as *Jemand* and *Niemand*, only to the notion of person, without distinction of sex; e. g. *es ist Einer erschlagen worden*, somebody has been killed; *Keiner weiß Alles*, no one knows everything. From the indefinite pronouns, however, the definite numeral *einer*, one, and the indefinite numeral *keiner*, no or none, must be distinguished, which are adjectives, and applied also to things; e. g. *ein Pferd*, one horse; *kein Mensch*, no person. *Einer* and *keiner* have the inflection of adjectives (§116); but, like the possessive pronouns (§ 123), lose the termination in the nom. sing. masc. and neut. and in the nom. and accus. sing. neut. when they are placed as adjectives before substantives; e. g. *ein, kein Mensch*, one, no man; *ein, kein Thier*, one, no animal.

The indefinite *Etwas* and *Nichts* are also substantive-pronouns, and applied to the notions of things in the same way as *Jemand* and *Niemand* to those of persons; e. g. *ich habe Nichts, gib mir Etwas*, I have nothing, give me something. They are also employed, however, as indefinite numerals; in which case they are frequently used as adjectives (see § 136). In familiar intercourse *was* is frequently employed for *Etwas*; e. g. *ich will dir was sagen*, I'll tell you something.

CHAPTER V.—Of Numerals.

§ 133.

NUMERALS do not express notions, but only the relations of number and quantity (§ 8). They are *definite* if they imply a definite number, as *two, three*; and *indefinite* if they imply an indefinite number, as *many*, or an indefinite quantity, as *much*.

Those definite numerals which express merely the number of persons or things, and from which all other definite numerals are formed, are termed *Cardinal* numerals. They are either simple, as *three, four*; or compound, as *fourteen, twenty-three*. In the German language, numerals compounded with *zwanzig*, twenty; *dreißig*, thirty, &c. the component *ein, zwei, drei*, &c. is placed before the other component, and connected with it by means of the conjunction *und*. Thus the German cardinal numerals are as follows:—

1. ein.	21. ein und zwanzig.
2. zwei.	22. zwei und zwanzig.
3. drei.	23. drei und zwanzig.
4. vier.	24. vier und zwanzig.
5. fünf.	25. fünf und zwanzig, &c.
6. sechs.	30. dreißig.
7. sieben.	31. ein und dreißig, &c.
8. acht.	40. vierzig.
9. neun.	50. fünfzig.
10. zehn.	60. sechzig.
11. elf.	70. siebenzig.
12. zwölf.	80. achtzig.
13. dreizehn.	90. neunzig.
14. vierzehn.	100. hundert.
15. fünfzehn.	101. hundert und ein.
16. sechzehn.	110. hundert und zehn.
17. siebenzehn.	161. hundert ein und sechzig.
18. achtzehn.	200. zwei hundert.
19. neunzehn.	300. drei hundert.
20. zwanzig.	400. vier hundert.

500. fünf h undert.	10,000. zehn tausend.
600. sechs h undert, &c.	100,000. hundert tausend.
1000. tausend.	200,000. zwei hundert tausend.
2000. zwei tausend.	1,000,000. eine Million.

In the numeral *ein, eine, ein*, the gender is distinguished by the inflection, which is explained in § 132.

In old German the gender was distinguished in *zwei* also by the forms *zween, zwo, zwei*: this practice is now obsolete. The inflected genitive *zweier*, and the dative *zweien*, are employed only when the case is not marked by inflection in another word. We say, therefore, *die Zusammenkunft zweier Freunde*, the meeting of two friends; *ich habe es zweien gesagt*, I told it to two persons; *ich habe es von zweien gehört*, I learnt it from two persons: but we say, *die Zusammenkünfte der, or dieser zwei Freunde*; *ich habe es diesen zwei, or zwei Freunden gesagt*. The same applies to *drei*. The other cardinal numerals assume the termination *en* in the dative case, when they are used substantively, the case not being pointed out by another word; e. g. *mit sechsen fahren*, to go in a coach and six (horses); *ich habe es fünfen gesagt*, I told it to five persons.

The numeral *beide*, both, has the declension of adjectives in the ancient and modern form (§ 116. and Syntax, § 170); e. g. *der Tod beider Söhne*, the death of both sons, and *der Tod seiner beiden Söhne*. The singular of the neuter gender, *beides*, is frequently used substantively; in which form it corresponds to the English expression, *the one and the other*; but is applied only to the notions of things, and not to those of persons; e. g. *beides ist wahr*, the one and the other is true; *beides ist nützlich*, the one and the other is useful. The use of *beide* in the plural number is less limited than that of the English *both*; it is applied generally to persons or things, of which there are only two, and to which in English only the numeral *two* is applied; e. g. *ich habe ihre beiden Brüder gesehen*, I have seen your two brothers; *er hat mir diese beiden Bücher geschenkt*, he presented me with these two books. The English expressions *both gold and silver, he both danced and sung*, are not translated in German by *beide*, but by other copulative conjunctions. See § 154.

Cardinal numerals are considered as adjectives; but in German the substantive referred to is frequently omitted, so that they are used substantively like other adjectives (§ 7); e. g. *die Drei, welche kamen*, the three who came. *Hundert* and *Tausend* are not only used substantively in this way, but are employed also as substantives of the neuter gender with articles, and declined as such; e. g. *das Hundert, viele Hunderte, viele Tausende*. *Eine Million* is always employed as a substantive of the feminine gender with an article.

When cardinal numerals denote cyphers or numbers marked on cards, dice, &c. they are considered as substantives of the feminine gender, because the substantive *Zahl*, number, is understood; e. g. *die Zwei*, the number *two*; *die Herzsieben*, the seven of hearts. Substantives of various significations are formed from cardinal numerals by means of the affixes *er* and *ling* (§ 38, 41); e. g. *Dreier, Sechser*, a coin worth three, six kreuzers; *Elfer, Zweiundzwanziger*, wine of the growths of 1811 and 1822; *Zwilling, Drilling*, a twin, one of three children born at the same time.

The numeral *ein* is frequently used in the signification of the English *the same*; e. g. *es ist einerlei*, it is all one, or the same thing; *sie sind einer Meinung*, they are of one, or of the same opinion *.

§ 134.

Ordinal numerals are formed from cardinal numerals, by adding the termination *t*; and when the cardinal terminates in *zig*, by the termination *st*; e. g. *der zweite, der dritte* (instead of *dreite*), *der fünfte, der zwölfte, der dreizehnte, and der zwanzigste, der zwei und dreißigste*. The ordinal numeral of *einer* is *der erste*, the first (§ 117). *Der andere*, the other, may be regarded as an ordinal numeral of *zwei*; but it is in modern German employed as such only when no more than two persons or things are referred to; e. g. *ein Bein ist kürzer als das andere*, one leg is shorter than the other. Its use, therefore, is more limited than in English: in expressions like *give me another glass of wine*, *another* is translated by *noch ein*;—*gib mir noch*

* D des Glücklichen, dem es vergönnt ist. Eine Lust mit Euch zu theilen. *Sch.*

ein Glas Wein (see § 139). Ordinal numerals are inflected like adjectives (§ 116).

From ordinal numerals, *adverbial* numerals are formed by the termination *ens* (*en-s*); e. g. *ersten*, *zweiten*, *dritten*, *vierten*, &c. firstly, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, &c. (see § 140.)

Observation.—The English *the next* is in some expressions rendered by an ordinal numeral; e. g. *the next morning*, *den andern Morgen*; *the next after him*, *der Erste nach ihm*.

§ 135.

The following numerals are formed by composition with cardinal and ordinal numerals:—

1. *Variative* numerals, by compounding cardinal numerals in the genitive case with the obsolete substantive *lei*, kind; e. g. *einerlei*, *zweierlei*, *dreierlei*, *zehnerlei*, of one, two, three, ten kinds. They are used as adjectives, but have no inflection; e. g. *dreierlei Rosen*, three kinds of roses.

2. *Distributive* numerals are formed as in English; e. g. *zwei und zwei*, *drei und drei*, two and two, &c. In the same way, *je zwei*, *je drei*, &c. are employed.

3. *Multiplicative* numerals are formed by compounding cardinal numerals with *fach*; e. g. *einfach*, *zweifach* (or *zwiefach*), *dreifach*, &c. simple, twofold, threefold, &c. In a few instances the obsolete *fältig* has been retained; e. g. in *hundertfältige Frucht tragen*, to bear fruit a hundredfold; *vielfältig*, *mannigfaltig*, manyfold. *Einfältig* implies simple, artless, silly; and *einfach*, simple, uncompounded. These numerals are used and inflected as adjectives.

4. *Reiterative* adverbial numerals are formed by compounding cardinal numerals with *mal*, time (French *fois*); e. g. *einmal*, *zweimal*, *dreimal*, &c. once, twice, three times, &c. In the reiterative adverb *einmal*,—e. g. in *ich habe ihn nur einmal gesehen*, I saw him only once,—the principal accent is laid upon *ein*, which may be separated again from *mal* (*ein Mal*): it differs in this respect from the adverb of time, *einmal*, once, one day, some time or other; in which the principal accent is laid upon *mal*, and in which *ein* is frequently omitted in popular language; e. g. *ich habe ihn einmal* (or *mal*) *gesehen*, I saw him one day; *es war einmal ein König*, there was once a king.

5. *Fractional* numerals are formed by compounding ordinal numerals with the substantive Theil, part, which is contracted with the termination of the ordinal numeral into tel; e. g. Drittel, Viertel, Fünftel, &c. a third, fourth, fifth part, &c. They are employed as substantives of the neuter gender, and declined accordingly. Instead of Zweitel, the adjective halb, half, is employed; which, when standing before names of countries and places of the neuter gender, is commonly not inflected; e. g. halb London.

6. *Dimidiative* numerals, analogous to the Greek and Latin numerals of the same description (ἡμιτέτατος, *sesquiertius*), are formed by compounding ordinal numerals with halb; e. g. drittehalb, viertehalb, &c. two and a half (literally *the third half*), three and a half. For *one and a half*, there is anderthhalb (literally *the other or second half*). These numerals are not inflected.

§ 136.

The following are of the description of *indefinite* numerals (§ 133); jeder, jeglicher, jedweder, every; jedermann, every body; manche, etliche, etwelche, einige, some; alle, all; viel, many, much; wenig, few, little; mehr, more; weniger, less; mehrere, several; ganz, all, whole; genug, enough.—Keiner, not one; Etwas, a little, some; and Nichts, nothing; are of the same description, in as far as they express relation of number or quantity. Indefinite numerals are considered as adjectives, and are inflected accordingly; except Jedermann, Etwas, and Nichts, which are regarded as substantives. Etwas, Nichts, and genug, have no inflection at all; etliche, etwelche, einige, manche, and alle, do not admit of an article, and therefore are always inflected in the ancient form (§ 116). The inflection of keiner has been mentioned in § 132. In Jedermann only the genitive case Jedermanns is inflected. Ganz, like halb (§ 135), is not inflected when it stands before names of countries and places of the neuter gender; e. g. ganz England, ganz Paris*.

In the use of the indefinite numerals, particular attention

* Erregt ist ganz Messina. Sch.

ought to be paid to the distinction of the relation of a *number* of individuals (*many* persons, a *few* persons), from the relation of a *quantity* of things, in which individuality is not distinguished (§ 6) (*much* money, *little* water). Jeder, jeglicher, jedweder, Jedermann, etliche, etwelche, einige, manche, and mehrere, always express a relation of *number*. Etwas, Nichts, ganz, on the contrary, denote a relation of *quantity*; but alle, viel, wenig, mehr, weniger, genug, fein, are used in both senses, which then are frequently distinguished by the inflection of the numeral. Thus all, if used in the plural, refers to number: in the singular, on the contrary, it implies quantity: e. g. alle Menschen, all men; in allen Dingen, in all things; an allen Orten, in all places; and alles Geld, all the money; alle Welt, all the world, all people; aller Wein, all the wine; in aller Eile, in all haste. Alles however (sing. neut.), like das and was (§ 125, 129), is sometimes applied also to an indefinite number of persons; e. g. Alles freuet sich, every body is happy *. The definite article is never placed after all, as in English. When all is used in the singular number, and is followed by a pronoun, the termination of inflection is frequently dropped; e. g. er weiß von all dem nichts, he knows nothing of all that; all mein Geld, all my money; all dieser Wein, all this wine. All is never employed in the signification of *whole* (*totus*), like the English *all*, in *all the year*, das ganze Jahr; *all the day*, den ganzen Tag; *in all Venice*, in ganz Venedig.

Jeder, jeglicher, and jedweder, have the same distributive signification which *every* has in English: they relate to persons or things of any number, and stand also in the room of the English *each*; e. g. Jeder lobt sein Vaterland, every one praises his own country; Alle sind geschäftig, Jeder auf seine Weise, all are busy, each in his own way; Es sind zwei Brüder, und Jeder hat ein besonderes Geschäft, they are two brothers, and each of them has a separate business. In some instances the generality of a number, which is expressed in English in a distributive way by *every*, is denoted in German only by *all*; e. g. alle Jahre, alle Tage, every year, every day; alle drei

* Mir folgt der Fluch, und Alles fliehet mich. Sch.

Monate, every three months; sein Haus ist Allen offen, his house is open to every body; er weiß Alles, he knows every thing. Jeder, jeglicher, and jedweder, are used only in the singular number, except in the expression Alle und Jede, all and every of them.

Manche in a general way implies an indefinite number, and etliche, etwelche, (some of,) a definite or indefinite number; e. g. er hat manche Freunde, und Etliche haben ihm Beweise ihrer Freundschaft gegeben, he has (a number of) friends, and some of them have given him proofs of their attachment; die Gesellschaft besteht aus zwanzig Mitgliedern, aber Etliche sind abwesend, the society consists of twenty members, but some of them are absent. Mancher is also used in the singular number, and then corresponds to the English *many a*; e. g. das macht mir manche schlaflose Nacht, that causes me many a sleepless night*. Einige, if applied to a number, implies *a few* (but more than one); e. g. einige Äpfel, some apples; einige Knaben, some boys: employed before abstract substantives, it denotes quantity; e. g. es ist noch einige Hoffnung, there is some hope left; einigermaßen, in some measure.

When the indefinite numerals viel and wenig refer to a quantity, they are not inflected; e. g. viel Wasser und wenig Wein, much water and little wine†. Applied to a number, on the contrary, they are always inflected, if used substantively; e. g. Viele sind berufen, aber Wenige sind auserwählt‡: but if used adjectively, they are employed either with or without inflection; e. g. hier sind viele Kranke, aber wenige Aerzte, and es gibt viel Kranke, aber wenig Aerzte, there are many patients but few physicians§.

Mehr and weniger are not generally inflected; e. g. es gibt

* Dies ist der alte Schauplatz noch, die Laufbahn man ch es wachsenden Talentes. Sch.
Ihr werdet manchen alten Freund begrüßen. Sch.

† Da war wenig Ehre zu erwerben. Sch.
Viel noch hast du von mir zu hören. Sch.
Sie haben so wenig Neugier. Sch.
Mit wenig Wiß und viel Behagen. Göthe.

‡ Es hatten's hier noch Viele mit dem Hof. Sch.
Es können sich nur Wenige regiren. Sch.

§ Maria hat noch viel verborgne Freunde. Sch.
Es braucht nicht viel Worte. Sch.
Nur wenig Menschen werden so vorzüglich begünstigt. Sch.

hier mehr Reiche, aber noch mehr Arme als anderswo, there are more rich but at the same time more poor here than elsewhere; es gibt hier weniger Aerzte, aber auch weniger Kranke als anderswo, there are fewer physicians but also fewer patients here than elsewhere. The form *mehrere*, like the French *plusieurs*, has not the signification of the comparative degree, but answers the English *several*; e. g. ich habe mehrere Briefe erhalten, I had several letters.

Etwas used substantively as an indefinite numeral implies a small quantity; e. g. gib mir nur Etwas, give me only a little. It is frequently employed adjectively in the sense of the English *some*; e. g. gib mir etwas Brod, give me some bread; etwas Geld, some money. Employed adverbially it corresponds to the English *somewhat*, in expressions like er ist etwas lästig, he is somewhat troublesome; er befindet sich etwas besser, he is somewhat better.

Nichts is never employed adjectively, except when standing before an adjective in the neuter gender used substantively (§ 7); e. g. er ist nichts Gutes an ihm, there is nothing good in him; er hat mir nichts Angenehmes gesagt, he said nothing pleasant to me.

The indefinite numerals, *mancher*, *alle*, *viel*, *mehr*, *kein*, are compounded with *lei* into variative numerals; e. g. *mancherlei*, *allerlei*, &c.: and *jeder*, *etliche*, *einige*, *mancher*, *alle*, *viel*, *mehr*, are compounded with *mal* into reiterative adverbs; e. g. *jedesmal*, *einigemal*, &c. (§ 135.) Instead of *keimmal* we commonly use *niemal*: and *vielmals*, *mehrmals*, *niemal*, like *jemal* (at any time), commonly assume a final *s* (*vielmals*, *mehrmals*, *niemals*, *jemals*).

Observation 1.—In German all adjective indefinite numerals are, like other adjectives, used substantively (§ 7); e. g. *Jeder*, every body; *Mancher*, many a man; *Etliche*, some people; *Viele*, many persons; *Alles*, everything. Before *Jeder*, *jedlicher*, and *jedweder*, the indefinite article is frequently employed; e. g. *ein Jeder*, every one.

Observation 2.—There are no German words corresponding to the English *either*, *neither*, *any*, and *each* as far as *one of two* is implied. *Either* is rendered by *einer von beiden*, one of both; *neither* by *keiner von beiden*, none of both; and *each* by *Jeder*. *Any* is variously translated, according to its signification; e. g. *any body*, *Jedermann*; *any thing*, *alles*; *in any place*, *überall*; and *any one*, *any man*, *irgend Jemand*; *in any place*, *irgendwo*; *at any time*, *zu irgend einer Zeit*.

CHAPTER VI.—Of *Adverbs*.

§ 137.

THOSE forms of substantives, adjectives, pronouns, and numerals, which express the relations of locality, time, or manner, are regarded as *adverbial*; e. g. he lives *in the country*; he arrived *before night*; he came *in great haste* (§ 13). *Adverbs* however, in the stricter sense of the word, are only those *inflexible forms of words* which express the same relations as *abroad, soon, quickly* *. *Adverbs* are either notional or relational words (§ 1); the former being made from substantives and adjectives (or participles), whilst the latter are formed from pronouns and numerals. Many adverbs however, although formed from substantives and adjectives, now express merely place, time, &c. in reference to the speaker, and are accordingly to be regarded as relational words; e. g. *oben*, above; *unten*, below; *jetzt*, now; *balb*, soon; *freilich*, indeed.

§ 138.

The following adverbs are of the description of *relational* words:—

1. Most adverbs of *place*. Such are, the demonstrative and interrogative adverbial pronouns *hier*, *da*, *dort*, *wo*, &c. (§ 128, 131): some compounds of pronouns, e. g. *doben*, there above; *drunten*, there below; *draußen*, without doors; *hienieden*, here below; *diesseits*, on this side; *jenseits*, on that side: and the adverbs, *außen*, without; *innen*, within; *oben*, above; *unten*, below; *nieder*, down; *hinten*, behind; *vorn*, before; *fort*, forth, off; *weg*, away; *zurück*, back; *rechts*, to the right hand; *links*, to the left hand; *vorwärts*, forwards; *rückwärts*, backwards; *irgend*, anywhere; *nirgend*, nowhere; *überall*, allenthalben, everywhere; *beisammen*, *zusammen*, together.

2. Most adverbs of *time*. Such are, *dann*, *alsdann*, then; *wann*, when; *damals*, at that time; *einmal*, once; *erst*, *zuerst*,

* Grammatik. § 9, 161.

first; *erstens*, in the first place; *zweitens*, secondly, &c.; *je*, *jemals*, ever, at any time; *immer*, *allezeit*, *stets*, always; *niemal*, never; *jetzt*, *nun*, now; *noch*, still; *schon*, *bereits*, already; *bald*, soon; *vormal*, *sonst*, formerly; *eben*, just now; *neulich*, *jüngst*, lately; *sogleich*, immediately; *nächstens*, the next time; *zugleich*, at the same time; *meistens*, mostly; *heute*, today; *morgen*, tomorrow; *gestern*, yesterday; *übermorgen*, the day after tomorrow; *vorgestern*, the day before yesterday.

3. The adverbs of *frequency* and of *intensity*. Frequency is implied by *oft*, *often*; *selten*, seldom; *wieder*, *abermals*, again; and by the adverbial numerals *einmal*, *zweimal*, &c. (§ 135.) Intensity is implied by *so*, as (Lat. *tam*); *wie*, *als*, as (Lat. *quam*, *ac*); *sehr*, very; *gar*, quite; *sogar*, even; *überaus*, exceedingly; *beinahe*, fast, nearly; *nur*, only; *auch*, even; *kaum*, scarcely; *zu*, too; *einigermassen*, in some measure; *gänzlich*, entirely; *weit*, *bei weitem*, far; *höchst*, most; *mindest*, least.

4. The adverbs of *mood* (§ 8, 10). Such are, *ja*, yes; *doch*, yet, however; *wahrlich*, *fürwahr*, indeed; *wirklich*, really; *zwar*, *freilich*, though, however; *nein*, *nicht*, no, not; *keineswegs*, not at all; *ob*, if; *etwa*, *vielleicht*, perhaps; *wol*, perhaps, indeed; *wahrscheinlich*, probably; *gern*, with pleasure; *durchaus*, *allerdings*, *schlechterdings*, by all means; *wenigstens*, at least; and some others.

5. A few adverbs of *manner*: viz. *so*, so, thus; *wie*, how, as; *anders*, otherwise; *eben so*, in the same way; *gerade so*, exactly so.

§ 139.

The proper use of the relational adverbs requires particular attention; because their signification, like that of most other relational words, is more vague than that of notional words. In this respect the following remarks may be of use.

da The adverb of place, *da*, frequently expresses the relation of time, and takes the signification of *then*; e. g. *der Vater kam an, da war große Freude*, the father arrived, *then* there was great happiness*.

hier *Hier* implies the locality of the person who speaks, in the absence of any motion, either toward it or away from it; e. g.

* Wenn der Donner hallt, da fühlen sich alle Herzen in des Schicksals Gewalt. Sch.

er wohnt hier, he dwells here. The adverbs *her* and *hin* are not generally expressed by any words in English: *her* implies a motion towards the speaker, whilst *hin* implies a motion away from him; e. g. *kommi her*, come towards me; *geh hin*, go away: they retain the same signification when compounded with prepositions or other adverbs. Thus we distinguish *er reitet hier*, *da*, he rides in this, in that place, from *er reitet hierher*, he rides towards this spot (where the speaker stands); *dorthin*, towards that spot (pointed out by the speaker, and away from him); *daher*, from that spot (towards the speaker); *dahin*, towards that spot (removed from the speaker)*. In historical narrative, however, where the person who speaks is lost sight of, *her* and *hin* are referred to the person spoken of; e. g. *er rief ihn herein*, he called him in; *Petrus ging hinaus*, Peter went out. *Her* and *hin* placed after prepositions, which in that case have the subordinate accent, take the place of the demonstrative pronouns *daß*, that, and *dieses*, this; e. g. *vorher* *nachher*, before (that), after (that), afterwards; *vorhin*, a short time ago (before this) (§ 128). In *daher*, from that (thence); *dahin*, to that (thither); *woher*, from what (whence); *wohin*, to what (whither); *her* and *hin*, which take the principal accent, have assumed the power of prepositions. In *woher* the components are sometimes separated again, as they are in *wherefrom* in English; e. g. *wo kommt er her?* *where* does he come from†?

The signification of *nun* differs from that of *jetzt*, which is purely an adverb of time, and implies the present time in reference to the speaker; e. g. *er schreibt jetzt*, he is now writing: whereas *nun* always relates to an antecedent, which is regarded as a cause; e. g. *du hast es versprochen, nun mußt du Wort halten*, you promised it, *therefore* you must keep your word. It is equivalent to the English *well* in expressions like *nun, ich habe nichts dagegen*, well, I have no objection to it;

* There being in English no adverbs corresponding to *her* and *hin*, the direction of a motion in reference to the place occupied by the speaker is sometimes distinguished by the use of different verbs. Thus *to go*, *to take*, express a motion away from the speaker; whilst *to come*, *to bring*, refer to a motion towards him. In the German verbs *gehen*, *kommen*, *nehmen*, *bringen*, no relation of the speaker is understood.

† *Wo kam der Schmuck her?* *Sch.*

nun, was wünschest du? well, what do you wish for *? And it is employed even in the signification of *since*; e. g. nun die Gefahr vorüber ist, können wir ohne Furcht sein, (now) since the danger is over, we may be without fear †.

Sonst originally means *at another time*; e. g. er trinkt heute Wein, sonst trinkt er Wasser, today he drinks wine, usually (all other days) he drinks water; die Straßen waren sonst schlecht, the roads were formerly bad: but it is applied also to place, manner, and other relations; e. g. sonstwo, elsewhere; er sieht blaß aus, ist aber sonst gesund, he looks pale, but he is otherwise in good health. It has a conditional signification in expressions like du mußt arbeiten, sonst wirst du Noth leiden, you must work, otherwise you will be in want.

The relational adverbs of time, erst, first; schon, already; and noch, still, yet; if referred to the predicate, are employed in the same way as the corresponding adverbs in English; e. g. ich will erst arbeiten und dann spielen, I shall first work and then play; er schläft schon, he is already sleeping; er schläft noch, he is still sleeping.

These words are, however, more extensively employed in German than in English; being frequently referred, not to the predicate, but to another word expressing a relation of time; e. g. erst gestern, schon heute, noch diesen Abend. Such modes of expression being generally contrary to the English idiom, they cannot be literally translated; and the adverbs of time, erst, schon, noch, must either be left out altogether, or the sense requires to be pointed out by circumlocution. Their signification is to be pointed out as follows:—erst implies *not before*, and schon *not later than*, both referred to a *point* of time; whilst noch expresses *not before*, as well as *not later*, but referred to a *duration* of time: we say, er ist erst gestern angekommen, he did not arrive till yesterday; er ist schon gestern angekommen, he arrived yesterday (and not today); ich habe ihn noch gestern gesehen, it was but yesterday that I saw him, I saw him only yesterday; er wird noch heute ankommen, he will still arrive in the course of the day, or, he will arrive this

* Nun, mir ist Alles lieb, geschieht nur Etwas. Sch.

† Was kann dich ängstigen, nun du mich kennst? Sch.

Und nun der Himmel deinen Schritt hierher gelenket, so laß das Mitleid siegen. Sch.

very day; *ich soll es erst morgen erfahren*, I am to know it only tomorrow, or, not till tomorrow; *ich soll es schon jetzt erfahren*, I am to know even now (it is not to be withheld from me any longer); *ich soll es noch diese Woche, noch heute erfahren*, I am to know it within this week, this very day. The same words, *erst*, *schon*, and *noch*, are also employed as adverbs of quantity and number, preceding other expressions of measure: in that case *erst* implies only *no more than*, *schon* *as much as*, and *noch* *moreover*; e. g. *er hat erst ein Glas getrunken*, he has drunk only (no more than) one glass; *er hat schon eine ganze Flasche getrunken*, he has drunk as much as a whole bottle; *er will noch ein Glas trinken*, he wishes to drink another glass; *erst dreimal*, no more than three times; *schon dreimal*, as much as three times; *noch dreimal*, three times more. Intensity is denoted by *noch* in expressions like *wenn ich auch noch so reich wäre*, however rich I should be; *wenn ich es auch noch so gut meine*, however well intentioned it be: it has an adversative signification in expressions like *wir alle bezeugen es, und du zweifelst noch?* we all affirm it and yet you doubt? *Schon*, as an adverb of mood, strengthens an assertion in expressions like *er wird schon anderer Meinung werden*, he will (yet) change his opinion; *ich will ihn schon zwingen*, I shall (certainly) force him.

Ja, yes, is employed as an adverb of mood, to express that an assertion is certain or self-evident; for which purpose the interrogative form is frequently used in English; e. g. *ich kenne ihn, er ist ja mein Verwandter*, I know him, is he not a relation of mine? *es regnet ja, wir können nicht ausgehen*, you see that it rains, we cannot go out.

Auch stands as an adverb of quantity in expressions like *auch der Weiseste kann irren*, even the wisest may err. *Auch*, if added to the interrogative pronoun *wer*, *was*, gives it the signification of the English *whoever*; e. g. *wer er auch sei*, whoever he may be; *was er auch sage*, whatever he may say*.

The relational adverb *wol* is originally the same with the notional adverb *wohl*, well, which is applied to that which *pleases our feelings*; e. g. *wohlthätig*, charitable; *wohl wollen*,

* Was ihr auch zu bereuen habt, in England seid ihr nicht schuldig. Sch.

to wish well; wohl aussehen, to look well; ich bin wohl, I am well: and differs in that way from gut, which applies to that which is *good in itself*; e. g. gut handeln, to act well; gut schreiben, to write well; er ist gut, he is good. Wohl or wol, used as a relational adverb, implies possibility or probability; e. g. das ist wol ein Ausländer, (I suppose) that he is a foreigner; er hat wol Geld, aber keinen Verstand, he has indeed money but no sense *. Sometimes it may be translated by the English *indeed* †.

The relational adverb gern, which is peculiar to the German, is supplied in English by the verb *to like*; e. g. ich habe ihn gern, I like him; er trinkt gern Wein, he likes wine; er tanzt gern, he likes to dance.

§ 140.

The following adverbs are notional words:—

1.) A few adverbs of place and time; e. g. ostwärts, eastward; westwärts, westward; bergan, up-hill; bergab, down-hill; unterwegs, on the way; and morgens, in the morning; abends, in the evening; nachts, in the night; täglich, every day; jährlich, every year; endlich, at last; augenblicklich, in a moment.

2.) All adverbs of manner, with a few exceptions (§ 138). They are formed from verbs, from adjectives, or from substantives. Those formed from verbs commonly have the form of the present participle; e. g. er sprach lächelnd, he said with a smile; er bat mich dringend, he requested me in a pressing way; er spricht fließend, he speaks fluently. The past participle, however, is also used as an adverb of manner; e. g. er kommt gerüstet or geküßt, he comes armed, or in full dress: and the past participle of intransitive verbs is connected in a peculiar way with the verb kommen, in order to denote the manner of motion; e. g. er kommt gelaufen, gefahren, geritten, he comes running, in a carriage, on horseback ‡. In

* Euch listet wol wie Wabington zu enden? Sch.

Es wird was Anders wol bedeuten. Sch.

Auch ein Kriegeheer läuft noch wol dem Kaiser zusammen. Sch.

† Wol ist er keiner von den weichen Thoren, die eine falsche Weiberthräne schmelzt. Sch.

‡ Als er auf einem stattlichen Roß kommt geritten, hört er ein Glöcklein erklingen, ein Priester war's, heran kommt der Mesner geschritten. Sch.

Seine gewaltigen Wetterbäche kommen finster gerauscht und geschossen. Sch.

the expression *verloren gehen*, to be lost, the participle is also considered as an adverb. This participle used adverbially, which we call the *Gerund*, is to be distinguished from the participle used adjectively; e. g. in *der tanzende Knabe*, the dancing boy (§ 77). Adverbs of manner are formed from abstract substantives by means of the affixes *lich*, *haft*, and from names of materials by means of the affix *icht*; e. g. *glücklich*, fortunately; *standhaft*, constantly; *salzicht*, like salt: and adverbs formed in this way are also used as adjectives (§ 52). In German, adjectives are generally employed as adverbs of manner, without assuming any distinctive termination; e. g. *er schreibt schön*, he writes beautifully; *er spricht schlecht*, he speaks badly; *er arbeitet fleißig*, he works diligently. In old German the adverbial relation was frequently expressed by the genitive case, which has been retained in some adverbs and adverbial expressions; e. g. *eilendē*, in haste; *zusehendē*, visibly; *vergebendē*, in vain; *flugs*, quickly; *fractē*, directly; *morgens*, in the morning; *nachts*, in the night; *folgendermaßen*, in the following way; *einigermāßen*, in some measure; *glücklicherweise*, fortunately; *jählingē*, suddenly; *blindlingē*, blindly; *erstens*, firstly, &c.

Observation.—An old practice of forming adverbs of manner from adjectives by the affix *lich* has been retained in a few instances; e. g. *flügllich*, wisely; *höchlich*, highly; *treulich*, faithfully; *wärblich*, truly.

§ 141.

The adverbs of manner admit of a comparison, the forms of which are the same with those of adjectives (§ 117); e. g. *er ist hoch*, *höher*, *höchst* *geachtet*, he is highly, more highly, in the highest degree esteemed; *er schreibt schön*, *schöner*, *am schönsten*, he writes beautifully, more beautifully, the most beautifully. There are however different forms of the superlative degree, by which the difference of the superlative of *eminence* and the superlative of *comparison* (§ 118) is distinguished. The superlative of *eminence* is commonly expressed either by the simple form of the superlative degree, or by the preposition *auf* with the accusative case; e. g. *er grüßt Sie freundlichst*, or *aufs (auf daß) freundlichste*, he salutes you most kindly; *er redete mich höflichst*, or *aufs höflichste*

an, he addressed me most politely; er ist höchst, or auf's höchste erfreut, he is most highly pleased. The superlative of comparison, on the other hand, is expressed by the preposition an with the dative case; e.g. er grüßt Sie am (andem) freundlichsten, er redete mich am höflichsten an, the most kindly, the most politely of all; er war am höchsten erfreut, most of all pleased. The superlative of eminence is also frequently pointed out by the termination ens; e. g. schönstens, bestens, meistens. In höchstens, at the most (es kostet höchstens drei Golden, it costs but three florins at the most); längstens, at the longest time; wenigstens and mindestens, at least; spätestens, at the latest; this form implies the highest possible degree.

Of the relational adverbs, only selten, oft, bald, and gern, admit of a comparison. The comparative of bald however is supplied by eher, and the superlative by ehestens and am ehesten: the comparative and superlative of gern are supplied by lieber and am liebsten.

CHAPTER VII.—Of Prepositions.

§ 142.

PREPOSITIONS are expressive, not of notions, but merely of *relations of locality*: they are accordingly of the description of relational words (§ 1, 10). Prepositions are also employed in order to denote the relation of *time*; e. g. on Sunday, before this day: and the relation of *causality*; e. g. to kill one by poison (Lat. *veneno*), to starve with hunger (Lat. *fame*), to choose one for his friend (Lat. *amicum*): but still the relation of locality is to be considered as their original meaning; it being, on the other hand, originally the purpose of cases to express the relation of causality (see Syntax, § 178)*.

Prepositions indicating the relation of causality are to be regarded as standing in lieu of cases; and we shall express

* Grammatik. § 166, 210.

their use in the Syntax, in treating of the cases which they supply.

All prepositions, properly so called, are originally adverbs of place: some substantives and adverbs, however, are now employed in the same manner as prepositions, though for the most part they do not imply a relation of locality; e. g. *on account of, for the sake of, instead of, during*. We consider them as prepositions, *improperly so called* (Afterpräpositionen).

§ 143.

In the signification of the prepositions, properly so called, we distinguish the *relation of mere locality* (*above or below, before or behind, within or without, or together, with another*), and that of *rest in* or of *motion to* or *from* a place.

The most part of prepositions express both relations at the same time: some of them, however, imply merely the *direction* of a motion; e. g. *von*, from (the direction from); *für*, for; *gegen*, against (the direction towards an object). The relation of mere locality is expressed by the preposition itself; e. g. *über*, above; *unter*, below: but that of rest or of motion to or from a place, is commonly pointed out by the case of the governed substantive; e. g. *er wohnt in dem Hause*, he lives in the house; *er geht in das Haus*, he goes into the house.

According to this general notion, the prepositions *auf*, out of, without; *bei*, near; *innen*, within; *mit*, with; *nebst*, together with; which imply *rest in* a place, govern the *dative* case. The prepositions *von*, from, of; and *aus*, from; which express the direction of a *motion from* a place, also govern the *dative* case.

The prepositions *durch*, through; *für*, for; *gegen* and *wider*, against; and *um*, about, round; which imply the direction of a *motion towards* a place, govern the *accusative* case. However, *nach*, to, though it expresses the same direction, governs the *dative* case.

The prepositions *an*, on; *auf*, upon; *hinter*, behind; *in*, in, into; *neben*, at the side of; *über*, over, above; *unter*, under, below; *vor*, before; govern the *dative* case, when rest in a place is implied: but when motion towards a place is expressed, they govern the *accusative* case. The preposition *zu*, at, to,

however, always governs the dative case, though motion towards a place be implied.

Observation.—In ancient German the prepositions *in*, *unter*, and *außer*, were also used with the genitive case; which practice has been retained in *indessen* and *unterdessen*, in the mean time (Lat. *interea*); *unterweges*, on the way; *außer Landes*, out of the country, abroad. In *von Alters her*, from ancient times*, the genitive case stands elliptically.

I. *Prepositions which govern the Dative case.*

Von, aus, außer, binnen.

cc§ 144.

The preposition *von* expresses the direction of a motion from an object in the most general way; e. g. *er kommt von einem Freunde, von Paris, vom Rheine, von dem Berge, von Osten*, he comes from a friend, from Paris, from the Rhine, from the hill, from the east. It also denotes an origin or commencement of space and time; e. g. *Wein vom Kap*, wine from the Cape; *vom Rheine bis an die Elbe*, from the Rhine to the Elbe; *von Weihnachten bis Ostern*, from Christmas till Easter. In composition, *von* is always supplied by *ab*; e. g. *abfallen*, to fall off; *abreisen*, to depart; *abschneiden*, to cut off.

Aus implies a motion *from within* a place; e. g. *die Steine fallen aus der Luft*, the stones fall from (out of) the atmosphere; *er zog einen Brief aus der Tasche*, he took a letter out of his pocket. It is used before names of countries, towns, and inclosed places, whenever a motion from *within* the same is expressed; e. g. *er kommt aus England, aus London, aus der Stadt, aus der Kirche*, from town, from church, &c.

Außer implies no motion, and differs in this way from *aus*; e. g. *er wohnt außer der Stadt*, he lives without the town; *er ist außer dem Hause*, he is without doors; *er ist außer Gefahr*, he is out of danger. *Außer* implies exclusion from a generality, in expressions like *alle außer dir haben es gewußt*, all of them knew it except you; *niemand außer ihm war da*, nobody was there but he.

* Frei war der Schweizer von Uralters her. Sch.

Binnen implies *within*, but is applied only to time; e. g. binnen drei Tagen, within three days.

bei, mit, nebst.

μετὰ

§ 145.

The preposition *bei* expresses vicinity in the most general way; e. g. bei Einem wohnen, to live with one; bei Einem sitzen, to sit near or by one; bei Frankfurt, near Frankfort; sie stehen bei einander, they stand together; das ist bei uns Rechts (Sch.), that is lawful with us. Bei as a preposition of time implies co-existence; e. g. bei Sonnenaufgang, at sunrise; bei seiner Ankunft, at his arrival; beim Tode des Königs, at the death of the king; bei Gelegenheit, on the occasion; bei Tage, in the day-time; bei Nacht, in the night-time.

The preposition *mit* expresses not so much a co-existence in space, as a *society* in an action; e. g. mit Einem sprechen, essen, trinken, reisen, to speak, to eat, to drink, to travel, in company with a person; mit einander, with one another.

Nebst expresses neither a co-existence in space, nor society, but a combination of persons or things not otherwise connected with one another; e. g. der Bruder trat nebst einem Fremden herein, the brother entered together with a stranger; er hat seine Börse nebst seiner Uhr verloren, he has lost his purse together with his watch.

nach, zu.

§ 146.

The preposition *nach* expresses the direction of a motion towards a *place*; e. g. er geht nach Paris, nach Deutschland, nach Osten, nach Hause, he goes to Paris, to Germany, to the eastward, home. It is never employed when motion towards a *person* is expressed. As a preposition of time it corresponds with the English *after*; e. g. nach Weihnachten, after Christmas.

The preposition *zu*, like the English *at*, expresses rest in a place; but it is used in this signification only before names of towns, villages, and before Haus in the signification of *home*,

in order to denote the locality of persons and personal actions; e. g. *der Papst zu Rom*, the Pope at Rome; *er hat zu Neapel einen Freund angetroffen*, he met a friend at Naples; *er ist zu Hause*, he is at home: and when locality is expressed by reference to a person; e. g. *zur Rechten, zur Linken*, to one's right or left hand; *Einem zur Seite stehen*, to stand at one's side; *Einem zu Füßen fallen*, to throw one's self at one's feet.

Zu also expresses the direction of a motion towards a *person*; e. g. *er geht zum Vater*, he goes to his father; *er schickt ihn zu seinem Freunde*, he sends him to his friend. A direction of motion towards a *place* can be expressed by *zu* only when it is opposed to *von*; e. g. *von Land zu Land*, from land to land; *von Haus zu Haus*, from house to house.

An addition or union is also expressed by *zu* in expressions like *der Garten gehört zu dem Hause*, the garden belongs to the house; *Wasser zum Weine gießen*, to pour water into the wine. In all other cases in which *zu* stands before names of things, e. g. *zu Bette*, or *zu Tische gehen*, to go to bed, to go to table, it expresses rather a relation of causality, viz. the *intention* of sleeping, dining. *Zu* is used as a preposition of time only before the general denominations of time; e. g. *zur rechten Zeit*, at the proper time; *zu drei Malen*, at three times; *zum ersten Male*, the first time.

II. Prepositions governing the Accusative case.

durch, um, gegen, ^{contra} wider, für.

^{am}

§ 147.

^{pro.}

The preposition *durch*, like *through*, always expresses motion through the interior of something; e. g. *er reiset durch Deutschland*, *er geht durch die Stadt*, he passes through Germany, through the town.

Um, like *round* and *about*, refers to the outside of things, and implies either motion or rest; e. g. *er geht um die Stadt*, he walks round the town; *er ist immer um den König*, he always is about the person of the king. *Um* as a preposition of time corresponds to the English *about*; e. g. *um Weihnachten*, about Christmas; *um drei Uhr*, about three o'clock: it

denotes an *exchange* in expressions like Einer um den Andern, one after another, by turns*; um den andern Tag, every second day; Auge um Auge, Zahn um Zahn, eye for eye, tooth for tooth. In this signification it denotes also a *price*; e. g. alles ist euch feil um Geld, every thing is venal to you for money.

The preposition *gegen* corresponds to the English *towards*, as well as to *against*; e. g. die Augen gegen Himmel richten, to turn the eyes towards heaven; sich gegen Osten wenden, to turn towards the east; and gegen den Wind segeln, to sail against the wind; er ist gerecht gegen Freund und Feind, he is just towards friend and foe†. On the other hand, *wider* is employed only in the signification of *against*; e. g. wider den Strom schwimmen, to swim against the stream; wider die Wand rennen, to run against the wall. The preposition *gegen* is used especially to denote a sentiment of love, as well as of hatred; e. g. freundlich gegen Jedermann, kind to every body; nachsichtig gegen Schwache, indulgent to the weak; grausam gegen seine Feinde, cruel to his enemies. But *wider* always implies a repugnancy; e. g. er handelt wider Gewissen, he acts against his conscience; wider Willen, against his will. *Gegen* implies a *comparison* in expressions like er ist gegen dich ein Riese, he is a giant compared to you. It denotes *exchange* in gegen einen Wechsel Geld empfangen, to receive money for a bill: and it has the signification of *about*, if it refers to time, number, or measure; e. g. gegen Abend, about the evening; gegen hundert Mann, about a hundred men; gegen sechs Ellen, about six yards.

The preposition *für* also originally expresses the direction *towards* an object, it is not however applied to actual motion in space, being limited to other actions which are only conceived as motion. *Für*, in opposition to *wider*, implies *in favour* and *for the advantage*; e. g. für und wider eine Sache streiten, to contend for and against a cause; für Einen sprechen, to speak in favour of one; für Einen sorgen, to take charge of one. It expresses a *substitution* in expressions like ein Geistlicher

* Unermüdlich besuchte ich sie, den Einen um den Andern. Sch.

† Ist mein Gewissen gegen diesen Staat gebunden?
Hab' ich Pflichten gegen England? Sch.

predigt für den Andern, one clergyman preaches for (instead of) another; für Silber Gold einwechseln, to exchange gold for silver. It is *restrictive* in the expressions, für heute, for today; für dieses Mal, for this time; ich für meine Person, as for me. And it denotes a *series* in a distributive way in the expressions, Mann für Mann, man by man; Wort für Wort, word for word; Schritt für Schritt, step by step.

III. Prepositions governing both the Dative and Accusative

cases.
in sub.
an, in, auf. in

§ 148.

The preposition *an* signifies "near the outside of a person or thing, and in contact with it;" e. g. er hängt an dir, he is attached to you; sich an Einen schmiegen, to cling to one; am Rheine, on the banks of the Rhine; an dem Wege, by the way; an der Gränze, at the frontiers; an einen Pfahl binden, to tie to a stake; an der Wand, on the wall; an diesem Orte, an jener Stelle, in this, in that place; aneinander fetten, to chain together. As a preposition of time, *an* with the dative case denotes a *point of time* in a definite way, but is employed only when the time is not measured; e. g. am Morgen, in the morning; am Abend, in the evening; am Contage, on Sunday; am ersten April, on the first of April. We always say, however, in der Nacht, in the night.

The preposition *in*, like the English *in* and *into*, refers to an inclosed space and to the *inside* of things; e. g. er wohnt in der Stadt, he lives in town; er geht in die Kirche, he goes into the church; der Fisch im Wasser, the fish in the water; er steht im Felde, he stands in the field (in the camp); er ist in Furcht, he is in fear; er ist in Gedanken, he is wrapt up in his thoughts. As a preposition of time, *in* with the dative case denotes a *point of time*, only however when the time is measured; e. g. in dieser Stunde, in this hour; in dieser Woche, in this week; im Monat May, in the month of May. In the same way it denotes *duration of time*; e. g. er macht die Reise in drei Wochen, he takes three weeks to the journey; in wenig

Stunden kann die Nachricht kommen, within (after) a few hours the news may arrive.

The preposition *auf*, like the English *upon*, relates to the *upper side* of things and in contact with them; e. g. *auf dem Tische*, upon the table; *auf dem Dache*, upon the roof; *auf dem Berge*, upon the hill. It is employed in a peculiar way, in order to denote the reference of a locality to any action or business; e. g. *er tritt auf die Bühne*, or *auf den Schauplatz*, he steps on the stage; *er wohnt auf dem Lande*, *auf dem Dorfe*, he lives in the country, in a village; *er ist auf der See*, *auf dem Schiffe*, he is at sea, on board the vessel; *er ist auf dem Wege*, he is on the road; *der Knabe spielt auf der Straße*, the boy plays in the street; *einen Brief auf die Post*, *einen Wechsel auf die Börse bringen*, to carry a letter to the post, a bill to the exchange; *er ist auf der Schule*, *auf der Universität*, *auf dem Fectboden*, he is at college, at the university, at the fencing-room. Thus we say also, *er ist auf der Jagd*, *auf einer Hochzeit*, *auf dem Balle*, *auf der Reise*, *auf der Flucht*, he is at a hunting party, at a wedding, at a ball, on his journey, on the retreat. As a preposition of time, *auf* with the accusative case implies *after*; e. g. *auf Regen folgt Sonnenschein*, sunshine comes after rain: or it denotes an appointment, either for a point or for a duration of time; e. g. *er ist auf den Abend*, *auf den ersten May bestellt*, he has been appointed for the evening, for the first of May; and *ich habe ihm das Buch auf drei Tage geliehen*, I lent him the book for three days.

über *unter* *vor* *hinter* *neben*.

§ 149.

The preposition *über* expresses those relations of locality which are expressed by the English *above* and *over*; e. g. *über den Wolken*, above the clouds; *über den Berg gehen*, to go over the hill: and we also say, *über einen Fluß*, *über eine Brücke gehen*, to go across a river, a bridge. It implies *beyond* in expressions like *über dem Rheine*, beyond the Rhine. *Über* with the accusative case as a preposition of time implies *after*; e. g. *wir werden uns über ein Jahr wiedersehn*, we shall see one another again after a year.

Unter is opposite to *über*, and corresponds to the English *under* as well as to *below*; e. g. *unter dem Dache*, under the roof; *unter dem Baume*, under the tree; *ich stehe unter ihm*, I stand below him. It corresponds to *among* in expressions like *er ist unter den Brüdern der beste*, he is the best among his brothers: and in this way generally follows the superlative of comparison; e. g. *er ist der schönste unter allen*, he is the handsomest of them all. As a preposition of time, *unter* with the dative case implies *during*; e. g. *unter der Predigt*, during the sermon.

Ueber and *unter*, the former with the accusative and the latter with the dative, are also applied to *number* and *quantity*; e. g. *über zehn Jahre alt*, above ten years old; *Knaben unter sieben Jahren*, boys under seven years of age; *über eine Meile*, above a mile.

Vor as a preposition of place is opposite to *hinter*; e. g. *vor und hinter dem Wagen*, before and behind the carriage; *vor meinen Augen*, and *hinter meinem Rücken*, before my eyes, and behind my back. As a preposition of time, *vor* is always used with the dative case; e. g. *vor der Hochzeit*, before the wedding; *vor drei Tagen*, three days ago.

Neben implies vicinity in a collateral position; e. g. *neben dem Wagen*, at the side of the carriage; *er stellte sich neben mich*, he placed himself at my side (not before me); *du sollst keine fremden Götter neben mir haben*, thou shalt have no other gods beside me.

Observation 1.—The use of *ob* for *über* is obsolete, and occurs only in poetry; e. g. *Ob dem Altar hing eine Mutter Gottes*. *Sch.*

Observation 2.—The proper use of prepositions requires particular attention, as will be seen from the following examples; where, by a mere difference in the prepositions employed, the meaning of the sentence is entirely changed;—*er wohnt bei seinem Bruder*, he lodges *in his brother's house*; *er wohnt mit seinem Bruder in diesem Hause*, he lives *together with his brother* in this house; *er wohnt nebst einem Franzosen in diesem Hause*, he *and a Frenchman* live in this house; *er arbeitet bei einem Meister*, he works *with a master*; *er arbeitet mit dem Meister*, he works *in company with the master*; *der Soldat zieht in 's Feld*, or *zu Felde*, he comes *aus dem Felde*, he *steht in dem Felde*, the soldier marches into the field (*campaign*), he returns from the field, he is in the field; *der Bauer geht auf das Feld*, he comes from the field, *arbeitet auf dem Felde*, the farmer goes to, comes from, works in the field; *er geht zu Markte*, he goes to

market; er geht auf den Markt, he goes to the market-place; zu Hause, at home; in dem Hause, in the house; er geht nach Hause, he goes home; von Haus, from home; aus dem Hause, from the house; in ein Land gehen, to go into a country; auf das Land ziehen, to go to the country (from town); an das Land gehen, to go ashore; er singt auf der Straße, he sings in the open street; er wohnt in einer engen Straße, he lives in a narrow street.

Prepositions, improperly so called.

§ 150.

The prepositions, improperly so called (§ 142), are originally either substantives, simple or compound; e. g. statt, instead; dießseits, on this side;—or adverbs, e. g. gemäß, according;—or participles used as *gerunds* (§ 140), e. g. während, during; and the case governed by these prepositions is either the genitive attributive to the substantive (§ 172), e. g. statt eines Hutes, instead of a hat; or the case governed by the adverb, e. g. gemäß dem Gesetze, according to law; or the genitive of time or manner in agreement with the *gerund* (see § 188), e. g. während des Kriegeß, during the war. On that account the governed case is frequently placed before the preposition; e. g. der Krankheit wegen, on account of the illness; dem Gesetze gemäß, according to law. Only a few prepositions of this description express the relation of locality, most of them denoting relations of time, of causality, of manner, &c.

The following govern the genitive case:—statt and anstatt, instead of; außerhalb, without, on the outside; innerhalb, within, on the inside; oberhalb, above, on the upper side; unterhalb, below, on the under side; dießseits, on this side; jenseits, on the other side; halber, halben, and wegen, on account of; um—willen, for the sake of; kraft and vermöge, by virtue of; laut, according to; während, during; ungeachtet, notwithstanding; unweit, near, not far from; vermittelst, by means of; zufolge, according to; trotz, in spite of; längs, along. Trotz and längs, however, are also used with the dative case, and zufolge governs either the dative or the genitive case, according as it either follows or precedes the substantive; e. g. dem Berichte zufolge, and zufolge des Berichtes, according to the report.

The following govern the dative case:—*sammt*, together with; *nächst*, next; *seit*, since; *gemäß*, according; *gegenüber*, opposite to; *zuwider*, against, in opposition to.

The accusative case is governed by *sonder* and *ohne*, without (Lat. *sine*); *bis*, till; and *entlang*, along. *Entlang*, however, if standing before the substantive, governs the genitive case. The preposition *zwischen*, between, betwixt, governs either the accusative or the dative case, according as it denotes either motion or rest.

Observation.—The prepositions *statt*, *anstatt*, come from the obsolete *Statt* (*Stäte*), place; *halben*, *halber*, *außerhalb*, *innerhalb*, &c. from the obsolete *Halbe*, which implies side; *vermöge*, from *vermögen*, to be able; *laut*, from *Laut*, the sound; *wegen*, from *Weg*, way; *sammt*, from the obsolete *sammen*, to collect; *sonder*, from *sondern*, to separate; and *zwischen*, from *zwei*, two.

§ 151.

The signification of the following prepositions requires to be particularly attended to:—

Wegen, *halben* (*halber*), and *um*—*willen*, imply a *motive*; e. g. *er bleibt seines kranken Kindes wegen*, or *halben*, or *um des kranken Kindes willen zu Hause*, he stays at home on account of his sick child. These prepositions, however, are not synonymous: *wegen* denotes a motive in an indefinite way; e. g. *er geht wegen seiner Gesundheit nach Italien*, he goes to Italy on account of his health; *er verehrt ihn wegen seines Vermögens*, he courts him on account of his fortune. Physical cause however, if preventing an action, is also expressed by *wegen*; e. g. *er kann wegen der Hitze*, or *wegen des Lärms nicht schlafen*, he cannot sleep on account of the heat, or on account of the noise. *Halben* denotes a particular motive which we wish to distinguish from another; e. g. *er thut das der Ehre halben*, he does so for the sake of the honour (not for the sake of reward); *ich bin nur deinet halben hierher gekommen*, I came here only on your account (not on mine). *Um*—*willen* refers to wish or interest; e. g. *um Gottes willen*, *um des Himmels willen*, for God's sake, for heaven's sake; *um des Friedens willen*, for the sake of peace*.

* *Um ihrer Ruhe willen muß es ihr verschwiegen werden. Sch.*
Um unsers Glaubens willen duldet sie. Sch.

Vermöge, kraft, laut, and zufolge, denote causes, viz. vermöge a physical cause, and kraft a moral one: laut refers especially to the contents of words, either spoken or written. Thus, die Himmelskörper bewegen sich vermöge ihrer gegenseitigen Anziehung, the heavenly bodies move in consequence of their mutual attraction; das Holz schwimmt vermöge seiner geringeren Schwere auf dem Wasser, wood floats upon the water in consequence of being less heavy; er thut es kraft seines Amtes, or kraft des erhaltenen Auftrages, he does it in virtue of his office, in virtue of the charge received by him; zufolge der Versuche, according to experiments; einer Lehre zufolge, according to a doctrine; laut des Briefes, according to the letter; laut der Urkunde, according to the document.

Gemäß denotes conformity; e. g. der Sitte gemäß, according to custom; dem Gesetze gemäß, according to law; seinem Alter gemäß, according to his age.

Seit not only denotes, like the English *since* and *from*, the commencement of a space of time,—e. g. ich habe ihn seit dem Tode seines Vaters, or seit seinem ersten Erscheinen nicht gesehen, I have not seen him *since* the death of his father, or *from* his first appearance,—but also the duration of time itself; e. g. ich habe ihn seit einem Jahre nicht gesehen, I have not seen him *for* a whole year; er ist seit zwei Jahren todt, he has been dead *these* two years.

Sammt, like *nebst* (§ 145), does not imply a relation of locality, but denotes that two or more persons or things already connected with one another are in the same predicament; e. g. der Vater sammt seinem Sohne, the father *together with* his son; er hat das Haus sammt den Möbeln verkauft, he sold the house *together with* the furniture*. Sammt has frequently also the preposition *mit* before it; e. g. mit sammt den Möbeln.

Bis, as a preposition of time, corresponds to the English *till*; e. g. er schläft bis zehn Uhr, he sleeps *till* ten o'clock; bis heute, *till* this day. It is used also as a preposition of place, in connection with another preposition of place, and

* Mußt du, um Einen Schuldigen zu treffen, das Schiff mit sammt dem Steuer-
mann verderben? Sch.

Nich sammt meinem Regimente bring' ich dem Herzog. Sch.

then implies *as far as*; e. g. *bis an das Thor*, *as far as the gate*; *bis nach London*, *as far as London*; *bis über die Brücke*, *to the other side of the bridge*. *Bis* is moreover used as an adverb, to denote a number not accurately stated; e. g. *zehn bis zwölf Gulden*, *ten to twelve florins*; *es sind vier bis fünf Häuser abgebrannt*, *about four or five houses are burnt down*.

The preposition *halben* (*halber*) always stands after the case governed; e. g. *der Ehre halben*, for the sake of honour. It is frequently contracted with the substantive; and when the latter is feminine, the obsolete genitive case is frequently retained; e. g. *Ehrenhalber*, *Gesundheitshalber*, for the sake of honour, of health; *Armutshalber*, on account of poverty.

Gegenüber, *zuwider*, and *entlang*, also are commonly placed after the case governed; e. g. *dem Hause gegenüber*, opposite the house; *dem Gesetze zuwider*, against the law; *den Wald entlang*, along the wood. *Entlang* however occurs also standing before the substantive*.

The prepositions *wegen*, *ungeachtet*, *zufolge*, and *gemäß*, may stand after the governed case as well as before it. In the expression *von Rechts wegen*, by virtue of the laws, the obsolete use of the preposition *von* before *wegen* has been retained. *Um*—*willen* is always separated by the substantive placed betwixt *um* and *willen*; e. g. *um des Geldes willen*, for the sake of the money. *Anstatt* may be separated in the same way; e. g. *an Geldes Statt*, instead of money.

When *wegen*, *halben*, and *um*—*willen*, are connected with the genitive case of one of the personal pronouns, they are contracted with them, the euphonical *t* however being placed between them (§ 30); e. g. *meinethalben*, *deinetwegen*, *um unfertwillen*, &c.

The preposition *sonder* is now obsolete.

* Wir hatten schon den ganzen Tag gejagt entlang das Waldgebirge. Sch.

CHAPTER VIII.—Of Conjunctions.

§ 152.

CONJUNCTIONS are words by which two simple sentences are connected with one another into a compound sentence; e.g. he arrived *and* I departed; he arrived *when* I departed. When two sentences connected one with another have either the same subject, or the same predicate, or another essential part common to both sentences,—e.g. *he* eats and *he* drinks, my brother *drinks* and my sister *drinks*,—the two sentences are frequently *contracted* into one sentence; e.g. he eats and drinks, my brother and my sister drink. In this case also the conjunction in fact connects two sentences, though it appears to connect only two words.

Conjunctions do not express notions, but merely the relations of sentences one to another; they are accordingly of the description of relational words (§ 1). Two sentences are connected either by way of *subordination*, or by way of *co-ordination*. They are connected by way of subordination, when one of them can be considered as standing in place of a substantive, adjective, or adverb, which is a factor of a combination (§ 11, 12, 13); e.g. he reported *that the king died* (the death of the king); the foreigner *who travels* (the travelling foreigner); he was at work *before the sun rose* (early). The conjunctions which express a connection of this description (*that, who, before*) may be termed *subordinative* conjunctions. Two sentences are, on the other hand, connected by way of co-ordination, when they are not in this manner dependent one upon the other; e.g. he is ill, *and* he has called a physician; he goes to Germany, *but* he cannot speak German; he cannot work, *for* he is ill: the conjunctions which express a connection of this description (*and, but, for*), we call *co-ordinative* conjunctions. Of the subordinative conjunctions we shall treat in the Syntax (see chapter on compound sentences); in this place therefore we consider only the co-ordinative conjunctions.

§ 153.

The co-ordinative conjunctions are conjunctions *proper*, if they express merely the relation of one sentence to the other; e. g. *und*, and; *auch*, also; *aber*, *allein*, *sondern*, but; *nämlich*, namely; *entweder*, either; *oder*, or; *dem*, for; also, consequently. Many co-ordinative conjunctions, on the other hand, must in reference to the predicate be considered at the same time as adverbs, denoting either a relation of place or time; e. g. *außerdem*, besides; *dem*, then; *ferner*, further;—or a relation of causality; e. g. *daher*, thence; *deswegen*, *darum*, therefore; *demnach*, *somit*, *mithin*, accordingly;—or a relation of mood; e. g. *weder*, neither; *noch*, nor; *gleichwol*, *zwar*, however; *doch*, *dennoch*, nevertheless (§ 10). The conjunctions of this description we call *conjunctive adverbs*.

Conjunctions proper generally stand at the head of the sentence, with the exception of *aber*, *auch*, and *also*, which may be placed either at the head or in the middle of the sentence. Conjunctive adverbs, on the other hand, are in respect of their position treated like other adverbs. (See § 207.)

The co-ordinative conjunctions are *Copulative*, *Adversative*, or *Causal*. In general, copulative conjunctions, as *und*, and, serve to enlarge or complete a thought by adding another sentence: adversative conjunctions, as *aber*, but, on the other hand, limit the thought expressed in an antecedent sentence: and causal conjunctions, as *dem*, for, serve to express a relation of causality.

Copulative Conjunctions.

§ 154.

We comprehend under this head, besides the copulative conjunctions proper (*und*, and; *auch*, also; *zudem*, moreover; *außerdem*, besides; *nicht nur*, *nicht allein*, *sondern*, not only, but; *sowol als*, as well as), also the *ordinal* conjunctions *erstens*, *erstlich*, in the first place; *dann*, then; *ferner*, moreover; *endlich*, lastly; the *disjunctive* conjunction *theils*—*theils*, on one hand and on the other; and the *explanative* conjunctions *nämlich*, namely; *als*, and; *wie*, as. The copulative conjunctions are used in

German in the same way as the corresponding conjunctions in English.

Nicht nur—sondern auch always refers to a consequent which is regarded as surpassing the antecedent; e. g. er hat nicht nur ein Haus sondern ein ganzes Gut gekauft, he bought *not only* a house *but* a whole estate; er hat nicht nur ihn gelobt, sondern ihn auch belohnt, he not only praised but rewarded him. Nicht allein—sondern is applied rather to a consequent which is merely regarded as different from the antecedent; e. g. er hat nicht nur sein Vermögen sondern auch seine Gesundheit verloren, he has lost *both* his fortune and his health; nicht allein der Bruder sondern auch die Schwester war da, there was *not only* the brother, *but also* the sister. Nicht bloß—sondern differs from both, and is applied to a consequent, which in some manner belongs to the antecedent; e. g. er verspricht nicht bloß dir beizustehen, sondern er wird dir wirklich beistehen, he not only promises to assist you, but he will really assist you.

Adversative Conjunctions.

§ 155.

Of this description are the conjunctions, aber, allein, but; nicht—sondern, not—but; entweder—oder, either—or; weder—noch, neither—nor; sonst, or else; denn (denn), unless; doch, jedoch, yet, however; dennoch, dessenungeachtet, nevertheless; hingegen, on the contrary; indessen, gleichwol, however.

Aber, allein, sondern, and hingegen, though rendered in English by the same conjunction, *but*, differ one from another. Aber denotes the limitation of an antecedent by the consequent in the most indefinite way, and implies only that the consequent is *different* from what is comprehended or supposed to be comprehended in the antecedent; e. g. er ist sehr reich, aber er ist auch wohlthätig, he is very rich, but he is also charitable; er spricht deutsch aber nicht geläufig, he speaks German, but not fluently; er hat versprochen, aber er wird auch Wort halten, he gave his promise, but he will also keep his word; Saul hat tausend geschlagen, David aber zehn tausend, Saul hath slain

his thousand, but David ten thousand*. Aber, on account of its indefinite signification, may stand together with other adversative conjunctions, as doch, dennoch, in the same sentence. Allein, on the other hand, expresses a decided *negation* of what might be inferred from the antecedent; e. g. er ist sehr reich, allein er ist geizig, he is very rich (and might be charitable), but he is a miser; er will deutsch lernen, allein er findet keinen Lehrer, he wishes to learn German (and will probably do so), but he finds no teacher; er verspricht alles, aber er hält nicht Wort, he promises every thing, but he does not keep his word. Aber may always be employed instead of allein, but not *vice versâ*. Sondern is only employed after a negation in the antecedent; e. g. er ist nicht ein Engländer sondern ein Franzose, he is not an Englishman but a Frenchman; ich habe nicht geschlafen sondern gearbeitet, I was not sleeping but working. Hingegen denotes that the consequent is in some measure contrary to the antecedent; e. g. er hat viel geschadet, er hat hingegen auch viel genützt, he has done much harm, but on the other hand he has also done much good.

The conjunction doch denotes a negation of what might be inferred from the antecedent, either as its cause or motive, or as its effect or consequence; e. g. er war in der Gesellschaft und er war doch nicht eingeladen, he was in the company though he had not been invited; er trauet mir nicht, und ich habe ihm doch Beweise von meiner Freundschaft gegeben, he mistrusts me, though I gave him proofs of my affection; er hat alles was er wünscht und ist doch nicht zufrieden, he has every thing he wishes for and still he is not satisfied†. Doch is employed especially when the speaker passes over to another object;

* Gerettet haben wir vom Untergang das Reich; aber jetzt schon fühlt man nicht mehr die Wohlthat. Sch.

Die fremden Eroberer kommen und gehen; aber wir bleiben stehen. Sch.

† Man gerieth nahe genug an einander, doch nur als Freund, als Gast sich zu bewirthen. Sch.

Ganz Deutschland seufzte unter Kriegeslast, doch Friede war's im Wallenstein'schen Lager. Sch.

Die haben Unrecht, die dich fürchteten und doch die Macht dir in die Hände gaben. Sch.

Ich weiß, daß gebiegene Weisheit aus euch redet; doch diese Weisheit, welche Blut befeuchtet, ich hasse sie.

e. g. man könnte über diese Sache viel sagen, doch das gehört nicht hierher, or doch laßt uns von etwas Andern sprechen, we might say a great deal on this subject, but it does not belong to this place; or, but let us speak of another subject. Dennoch is employed only when an effect or a consequence inferred from the antecedent is to be denied; e. g. er ist dreimal eingeladen und dennoch nicht gekommen, he has been asked three times, notwithstanding which he is not come; ich habe ihm Beweise meiner Freundschaft gegeben, und dennoch trauet er mir nicht, I gave him proofs of my affection, and still he mistrusts me *. Doch is used instead of dennoch, but not *vice versa*.— Jedoch denotes in an indefinite way what might possibly be inferred from an antecedent; e. g. er hat ihm wehe gethan, jedoch ohne Absicht, he has hurt him, but without intention; es wird nicht gelingen, jedoch magst du es versuchen, it will not succeed, yet you may try. Jedoch never stands together with either und, aber, or another conjunction, as doch and dennoch frequently do. Gleichwel and indessen denote a less decided opposition than doch and dennoch; e. g. er hat sehr wenig gelernt, er weiß gleichwel, or indessen soviel als sein Geschäft erfordert, he has learnt very little, he knows however as much as his business requires.

Sonst and denn (dann), for which also es sei denn, daß, is used, both denote a conditional negation:—sonst denotes that the antecedent conditionally negatives the consequent; denn, on the other hand, that the consequent negatives the antecedent; e. g. du mußt sparen, sonst wirst du darben, you must save, or else you will suffer want; and du wirst darben, es sei denn, daß du sparest, or du sparest denn, you will suffer want unless you save.

Observation.—Doch has the same adversative signification in many expressions, in which a negation or doubt referred to is not distinctly stated, but merely understood; in these cases it cannot be translated into English, and the sense is expressed in different ways; e. g. ja doch, yes to be sure (after a doubt has been raised); or simply, doch, yes (after a question containing a negation); er geht doch (accented) mit uns, he does go with us; but er geht doch (unaccented) mit uns, he is sure to go with us? gehe doch

* Weistehen sollen sie mir in meinen Plänen, und dennoch nichts dabei zu fischen haben. Sch.

mit uns, do go with us, pray go with us; ich möchte doch wissen, still I should like to know, &c.

Causal Conjunctions.

§ 156.

They are *denn*, *for*; *also*, *folglich*, *mithin*, *accordingly*, *consequently*; *daher*, *therefore*; *deswegen*, *desßhalb*, *on account of that*; *darum*, *for that purpose*; *dennach*, *according to*. The cause referred to is either physical or logical (a reason), or moral (a motive). *Denn*, *also*, *folglich*, and *dennach*, are applied to a logical cause; e. g. *er ist schuldig, denn er hat das Verbrechen eingestanden*, he is guilty, for he has confessed his crime; and *er hat das Verbrechen eingestanden, also or folglich or mithin or dennach ist er schuldig*. *Deswegen*, *desßhalb*, and *darum*, denote a moral cause; e. g. *seine Tochter ist krank, er bleibt deswegen or desßhalb or darum zu Hause*, his daughter is ill, on that account he stays at home. *Daher* alone denotes a physical cause; e. g. *wir haben Nordwind, daher ist es kalt*, we have a north-wind, which makes it cold; *er ist sehr gefällig, daher ist er bei Jedermann beliebt*, he is very obliging, which makes him a favourite with everybody.

We commonly employ *denn*, when a *reason*, and *also*, *folglich*, *mithin*, when a *consequence* is to be pointed out. *Denn* stands at the head of the sentence expressing a reason *. If *denn* or *dann* stands as a conjunctive adverb (§ 153) in a sentence expressing a consequence, it corresponds to the English *then*, and refers to a reason either expressed, or only understood; e. g. *so ist es denn wahr*, it is then true †. In the same way *also* is frequently employed in reference to a reason; e. g. *es ist also wahr*, it is true then; *es ist also keine Hoffnung mehr*, then there is no hope left. *Dennach* (from *nach*, according to) is less positive than *also* and *folglich*, and denotes rather a conformity to the antecedent; e. g. *er hat vor drei Tagen die*

* Vorwärts mußt du, den n rückwärts kannst du nicht mehr. Sch.

Dir ziemt es nicht zu richten, noch zu strafen, denn dich empört der Zuegung heftig brausend Wut. Sch.

† Dies ist der Tag, der mir Kunde bringt von ihrem Anzug, seid denn bereit die Herrscher zu empfangen. Sch.

Wollen wir einander denn ewig befehlen. Sch.

Stadt verlassen und kam demnach heute hier ankommen, he left town three days ago, and may accordingly arrive here to-day. The conjunctions *deswegen*, *deshalb*, and *darum*, differ in their signification, like the prepositions *wegen*, *halben*, and *um*—*willen* (§ 151); e. g. *er hat mich einmal betrogen, deswegen traue ich ihm nicht*, he once deceived me, on that account I do not trust him; *der Wein macht ihn krank, deshalb trinkt er Wasser*, wine makes him ill, on that account (not from frugality) he drinks water; *er will reisen, darum lernt er französisch*, he intends to travel, therefore he learns French *.

* *Deswegen bleib ich hier weil es dich verdrießt. Sch.*
Ich will sie befreien, darum bin ich hier. Sch.

PART II.

S Y N T A X.

CHAPTER I.—*Syntax of the Predicative Combination.*

§ 157.

A PREDICATIVE combination, as *you write, the father writes*, constitutes a sentence (§ 11), and expresses an action (writing), which is asserted to be the action of a person or thing (you, the father). The action asserted to be the action of a person or thing is termed the *Predicate* of the sentence, and the person or thing to which an action is in this way referred is the *Subject* of the sentence.

The unity of the thought expressed by the predicative combination, and by the whole sentence, is denoted by the unity of the principal accent, which is always taken by the predicate as the principal factor; and when the predicate is enlarged into an objective combination (§ 13), by the principal factor of that combination (§ 14, 15). The unity of the thought is frequently expressed in a still stronger manner by omitting the subject and all other parts of the sentence, which have the subordinate accentuation; the whole sentence being thus represented by the predicate alone; or when this consists of an objective combination, by the principal factor of that combination; e. g. *getroffen* instead of *du hast es getroffen*, you have hit it; *genug*, (it is) enough; *gute Nacht*, (I wish you a) good night. In German these ellipses (§ 17) are very frequently employed, especially in the imperative mood; e. g. *willkommen!* welcome! *still!* be silent! *voran*, go on! *langsam!* slowly! *Hülfe!* help! * (See § 169.)

* Nur näher, näher! redlicher Diego. Sch.

§ 158.

The subject of the sentence may be expressed by a relational word, viz. a pronoun, as well as by a notional word, viz. a substantive. The predicate, on the other hand, because it contains the principal idea of the whole sentence, is generally expressed by a notional word; and because it implies an action, this word is either a verb or an adjective. In expressions like *der Sturm ist vorüber*, the storm is over; *die Zeit des Spielens ist vorbei*, the time of playing is over; *mein Sohn ist zurück*, my son is come back; *das Spiel ist aus*, the play is over; the relational adverbs *vorüber*, *vorbei*, *zurück*, &c. stand by way of ellipsis instead of the compound participles *vorübergegangen*, *vorbeigegangen*, *zurückgekommen*, &c. in which they have the power of notional words (§ 59): and in expressions like *er ist ein Zänker*, he is a quarreller; *er ist ein Dieb*, he is a thief; *er ist der Meinung*, he is of opinion; the substantive connected with the relational verb *sein*, to be, has the signification of a verb (he quarrels, steals, thinks). The predicative genitive of abstract substantives is frequently employed in this way in the place of a predicative adjective; e. g. *er ist gutes Muthes*, he is in good spirits (happy); *das ist bei uns Rechtens*, that is lawful with us*. Relational adjectives cannot well stand in the place of the predicate unless a substantive be understood; e. g. *er ist ein solcher*, he is such (a person); *er ist wieder der vorige*, he is again the same (person) as he was formerly. The possessive pronouns however are used also as predicates when possession is to be pointed out with emphasis; e. g. *das Haus ist jetzt dein*, this house is now thine†. Relational adverbs standing in the place of the predicate,—as in expressions like, it was *here*, it was *today* only, it was *just now*, that he said so,—are not conformable to the German idiom. Those expressions therefore must be translated differently; e. g. *hier, noch heute, erst eben hat er es gesagt*. We admit however of expressions like *er ist hier*, he is here; *er ist dort*,

* *Elisabeth ist meines Stammes und Ranges. Sch.*
Ihr wart so zarten Alters noch. Sch.
Thut was Eures Amtes ist. Sch.

† *Dein ist der Ruhm. Sch.*—*Der Preis sei mein. Sch.*

he is there; in which the verb *sein* has the signification of the notional words *to live, to dwell*. Cardinal and indefinite numerals also can scarcely be placed alone in the place of the predicate; and when mere number or quantity is to be asserted by the predicate, as *we were three, the brothers are many, they are few*, the subject is always connected with the numeral, and placed in the genitive case, the indefinite pronoun *es* taking the place of the subject; e. g. *es waren unser drei, es sind der Brüder viele, es sind ihrer wenig, es ist des Geldes sehr wenig*. Mere existence is in German, as in English, always expressed in a similar way; e. g. *es ist eine dunkle Nacht, it is a dark night; es ist ein Gewitter, there is a thunderstorm; es sind jetzt drei Wochen, it is now three weeks*: or by means of the impersonal verb *es gibt* (§ 67); e. g. *es gibt heiße Quellen, there are hot springs*.

In German, ordinal numerals, if standing as predicates, are always used substantively, and take the article; e. g. *du bist der Erste, und ich der Dritte, you are first, and I am third*.

§ 159.

The subject of the sentence always stands in the nominative case. When the imperative mood is made use of, a person being addressed in the second person singular or plural, the subject is omitted, as in English; e. g. *sage mir, tell me*. But when, as is usually done, a person is addressed in the third person singular or plural (§ 121), the subject is expressed by the pronoun of that person; e. g. *sage Er mir, sagen Sie mir*.

The subject of impersonal verbs is, as in English, expressed by the indefinite pronoun *es*; e. g. *es regnet, it rains*. This pronoun however is commonly omitted, when the passive voice of intransitive verbs is used impersonally (e. g. *es wird getanzt, they are dancing*), or one of those impersonal forms by which the subject of an intransitive action is turned into an object (e. g. *es durstet mich, I am thirsty*—§ 67) are placed in an accessory sentence or in the inverted construction; e. g. *wenn getanzt wird, if they are dancing; heute wird getanzt, to-day they dance; wenn dich durstet, mich durstet*.

When the subject of a principal sentence is to be pointed out with emphasis, the subject is placed after the inflected

verb, and the indefinite pronoun *es* takes its place before the verb; e. g. *es ist ein Comet erschienen*, a comet has made its appearance; *es ist ein Wolf geschossen worden*, a wolf has been shot; *es kömmt ein Gewitter*, a thunderstorm is coming*.

Persons.

§ 160.

The relations of personality, time, and mood, are expressed in the predicative combination by the inflection of the verb or of its auxiliary verbs; or, if an adjective or a substantive stands in the place of the predicate, by the inflection of the relational verb *sein*. The predicative adjective, as well as the participle of compound tenses, is not inflected.

Predicative substantives agree with the subject in case and number, unless they stand in predicative genitives (§ 158). In names of persons the gender also is distinguished when their form admits of this distinction; e. g. *sie ist eine Diebin*, she is a thief; *sie ist meine Freundin*, she is my friend.

Common names usually have an article before them; when however they express not so much an individual, as a rank, profession, or condition, they commonly are without an article; e. g. *er ist Soldat*, he is a soldier; *er ist Kaufmann*, he is a merchant; *er ist Pair*, he is a peer.

When an adjective in the superlative degree, formed by simple comparison (§ 117), stands as a predicate, it is always used substantively with the definite article; e. g. *er ist der flügste*, he is the wisest. When it stands in an adverbial form, the relational verb *sein*, to be, is considered as a notional verb; e. g. *im Sommer sind die Tage am längsten*, the days are (last) longest in summer; *die Orangen sind am besten in Italien*, the oranges are best in Italy.

§ 161.

The verb, as in English, agrees with the subject of the sentence in person and number. When in a contracted sentence

* *Es umringt ihn die jubelnde Schaar. Sch.*
Es leben Götter, die den Hochmuth rächen. Sch.

(§ 152) the same predicate refers to two or more subjects, the verb stands in the plural number; e. g. Hitze und Kälte sind schädlich, heat and cold are hurtful *. The singular number however is also employed in German, especially when two or more subjects may be conceived as constituting one general notion; e. g. Hopfen und Malz ist an ihm verloren, hops and malt (all labour) is lost on him; hier steht Salz und Pfeffer, here stand salt and pepper †.

After two subjects, one of which is in the first and the other in the second or third person, the verb stands in the first; and after two subjects in the second and third persons, the verb stands in the second person plural; e. g. Ich und Du wissen es, I and you know that; Du und der Vater werdet es sehen, thou and thy father will see it. It is more usual however to add a personal pronoun in the plural number, comprehending both subjects; e. g. Ich und Du, wir wissen es; Du und der Vater, Ihr werdet es sehen.

After collectives (§ 6) in the singular number, the German verb always stands in the same number; e. g. die Menge geht dem Vergnügen nach, the multitude pursue pleasure; der Rath war in seiner Meinung getheilt, the council were divided in their opinion. The verb takes the plural however after ein Paar, a pair, a couple; eine Menge, a number; ein Duzend, a dozen; and some other substantives used as indefinite numerals (§ 133); e. g. ein Paar Häuser sind abgebrannt, two or three houses have been burnt; eine Menge Hasen sind geschossen worden, a great number of hares have been killed.

Tenses.

§ 162.

The present tense is employed whenever the predicate coincides in time with the present existence of the speaker; e. g. die Sonne geht jetzt unter, the sun is now setting; das Rad

* Wir rosten in der Halle Helm und Schild. Sch.
Schönheit und Jugend traten in ihre vollen Rechte wieder ein. Sch.

† Verrath und Argwohn lauscht in allen Ecken. Sch.
Um sie buht die Jugend und das Alter. Sch.
Verschwört sich Haß und Liebe mich zu schreien? Sch.
Die Orgel und der Chorgesang ertönt meinem Ohr. Uhland.

bewegt sich, the wheel is moving: and when no relation of time at all is distinguished in the predicate; e. g. die Sonne geht in Westen unter, the sun sets in the west; die Erde bewegt sich um die Sonne, the earth moves round the sun; das Leben des Menschen ist kurz, the life of man is short. The distinction expressed in English by the forms *he speaks* and *he is speaking*, is not pointed out in German by any particular forms.

The future time also is frequently expressed in German by the present, when the relation of time does not require to be pointed out; e. g. ich gehe morgen nach London, I go to London tomorrow; ich reise bald nach Deutschland, I shall soon travel to Germany*.

The present tense serves instead of the future, especially when the certainty of a future event is to be insisted upon; e. g. bitte ihn nur, so gibt er dir alles, was du willst, request him only, and he will give you every thing you wish for; ich will ihn bitten aber er thut es nicht, I shall request him, but he will not do it†.

The present tense is also used instead of the imperfect in an historical narrative, in order to render the style more animated; and this practice is more common in German than in English‡.

The first and second future tenses are employed in the same way as in English; e. g. er wird morgen abreisen, he will set out tomorrow; wenn dein Bruder kommt, wird er uns verlassen haben, he will have left us by the time when your brother arrives.

The perfect always refers a past time to the present existence of the speaker only; e. g. ich habe diesen Morgen deinen

* Wer weiß, wer morgen über uns befiehlt. Sch.

So gewiß die Sonne morgen wiederkehrt in ihrer Klarheit, so unausbleiblich kommt der Tag der Wahrheit. Sch.

† Dieß Schloß steigen wir in dieser Nacht, wir ermorden die Hüter, reißen dich aus deinem Kummer. Sch.

Verlaß dich drauf, ich lasse sehtend hier das Leben, oder führe sie aus Pilsen. Sch.

Du willst, und diese Ketten fallen. Sch.

‡ Da wird ein Aufruf in dem Schloß, ein Pochen schreckt unser Ohr, wir glauben die Befreier zu vernehmen, die Hoffnung winkt, Sir Pauler ist's, der uns verkündigt daß, &c. Sch.

Bruder gesehen, I saw your brother this morning. The imperfect and pluperfect tenses, on the other hand, denote a relation of time to another event; e. g. als er ankam, reiste ich ab, when he arrived I departed; als ich ankam, war er schon abgereiset, when I arrived he had set out.

An event which refers to a division of time, and not to another event, is in English expressed in the imperfect tense; e. g. I *was* at the play *last night*. In German, on the other hand, the perfect is employed in this case; e. g. ich bin gestern Abend im Schauspieler gewesen. When we say, ich war gestern im Schauspieler, another event, e. g. *when you were there*, or *when Hamlet was acted*, is understood. The imperfect is employed in the historical narrative as in English.

Forms of expression like *I am to speak*, *he is to come*, do not exist in German: they are rendered by the first future, ich werde sprechen, er wird kommen; and if a necessity rather than a relation of time is to be expressed, by the auxiliary verb of mood sollen (§ 70); e. g. *what am I to hear?* was soll ich hören*.

The relative tenses expressed by the forms *I was about to speak*, *he was to come*, are always rendered in German by the auxiliary verb of mood, wollen and sollen; the former being employed when the action depends on the will of the subject of the sentence, and the latter when it depends on the will of another subject; e. g. er wollte sprechen, he was about to speak; er sollte gehängt werden, he was to be hanged †.

Observation.—The English auxiliary verb *I will* sometimes expresses the frequency of an action; e. g. "When our visitors *would* say, 'You have fine children,' she *would* answer, &c." "Sometimes our neighbour *would* pay us a visit." "While one played, the other *would* sing." This meaning is either not expressed in German, or it is pointed out only by a relational adverb, as zuweilen, wel (§ 138, 139); e. g. wenn unsere Freunde wol, or zuweilen sagten, &c. antwortete sie wol, &c.

* Diese Zeit, die alles thun soll, hat er sie näher nicht bezeichnet? Sch.

† Ich entsetze ihr! vielleicht am Morgen eben dieses Tages, der mich auf ewig ihr vereinen sollte. Sch.

Der Gärtner hat bestochen werden sollen mit diesem Schmutz. Sch.

Moods.

§ 163.

The *indicative* mood denotes actual existence asserted or denied by the speaker; e. g. der Baum blühet, the tree is in blossom; die Sonne geht um vier Uhr auf, the sun rises at four o'clock; Cäsar ist in Britannien gewesen, Cæsar has been in Britain; der Mensch ist nicht allmächtig, man is not omnipotent. The indicative also serves to express actual necessity and actual possibility asserted or denied by the speaker; and in German it is always employed, even when actual possibility is left doubtful; in which case the conjunctive is frequently employed in English; e. g. if what you tell me *be* true, it shall never make me a rascal, wenn das, was Sie sagen wahr ist, soll es mich nie zu einem Bösewichte machen; if he *be* wise, he will follow your advice, wenn er klug ist, folgt er Ihrem Rathe; I shall give him advice though he *do* not care for it, ich will ihm Rath geben, wenn er auch nicht darauf achtet. Doubt of real existence is denoted by the conjunctive mood only in expressions like ob er komme oder nicht komme, ist gleichgültig, whether he come or not, is indifferent; wer er auch sei, ich will ihn anreden, whoever he be I shall speak to him; ist keiner da der sich ihm widersetze? is there no one to oppose him*?

§ 164.

The *conjunctive* mood is in general used when a predicate is *quoted*, i. e. when actual existence, actual necessity, or actual possibility, is asserted or denied either by words or in the thought of a subject *spoken of*; e. g. er erzählt, der Baum blühe, he tells me that the tree is in blossom; er glaubt, die Sonne gehe um drei Uhr auf, he thinks that the sun rises at three o'clock; Cäsar berichtet, er sei in Britannien gewesen, Cæsar relates that he has been in Britain†.

* Nichts Wahres läßt sich von der Zukunft wissen du schöpfeſt drunten an der Hölle Flüſſen, du ſchöpfeſt droben an dem Quell des Lichtes. Sch.

Welcher es ſei, er hat mein Herz erfreuet. Sch.

Da iſt nichts, was den Menſchen erſchrecke. Sch.

† Man ſagt, ſie habe den Gemahl ermorden laſſen. Sch.

Er verſuchte ſich, (ſagend) er habe falſch gezeugt, die Unglücksbriefe an Babinſton ſeien falſch, er habe andere Worte geſchrieben. Sch.

There is no difference in this respect,—whether the subject *spoken of* is at the same time *spoken to*, or *himself speaking*; e. g. du sagst, du seist gesund, you say that you are in good health; ich glaubte er sei krank, I thought he was ill: for in both these cases the person spoken to and the speaker do not assert the fact of the illness, but merely quote their own belief of it. The conjunctive thus being the mood of a quoted predicate, can stand only in a subordinate sentence. The form of the conjunctive occurs in principal sentences however, when it is employed to supply the third person of the imperative mood, as will be explained in § 166.

The conjunctive is also employed, as in Latin, when an action wished for or intended is quoted in an accessory sentence, connected with the principal sentence by means of the conjunctions daß, that (Lat. *ut*), damit, auf daß, in order that, for the purpose that; e. g. ich wünsche, daß er bald genese, I wish that he may soon recover; ich nehme Arznei, damit ich genese, I take physic in order that I may recover; er spricht laut, damit ein jeder ihn verstehe, he speaks loud so that everybody may hear him. The conjunctive accordingly may stand after verbs implying a hope, wish, advice, request, command, permission, fear, preventing, forbidding, &c. though they are, as in English, more commonly followed by the supine (see § 184).

The assertion quoted in the accessory sentence is, on the other hand, commonly expressed by the use of the indicative mood, when it is considered as a statement of a real fact by the speaker also, and when it is not so much the assertion quoted, as rather the act of quoting, which is to be pointed out. In this case the principal sentence has the principal accent, and the accessory sentence only the subordinate accent; e. g. er selbst hat gesagt, or gestanden, daß er gefehlt hat, he himself has said or confessed that he has been in fault; er will es nicht glauben, daß sein Bruder gestorben ist, he will not believe that his brother is dead; er hat allen Leuten erzählt, daß er heirathen will, he told everybody that he is about to be married. According to this principle, the indicative is generally employed when the verb in the principal sentence implies such certainty as excludes all doubt: this is the case

way?

low.

in wissen, erkennen, to know; sehen, to see; entdecken, to discover; e. g. du weißt, or du siehst daß er krank ist, you know, or you see that he is ill; er hat erkannt daß er gefehlt hat, he has acknowledged that he has been in fault; er hat gezeigt or bewiesen, daß er gut gemut ist, he has shown that he is well-intentioned.

The time to which the quoted assertion is referred, is always that in which it is asserted by the subject spoken of; and the quoted assertion therefore stands in the present, perfect, or future tense, according as the fact, event, or activity asserted either coincides with, precedes, or follows the assertion of the subject spoken of; e. g. er hat mir vor drei Monaten erzählt, sein Bruder sei ein reicher Mann (present), er habe ein Jahr zuvor ein großes Vermögen geerbt (past), und werde ein Gut kaufen (future), he has told me three months ago, that his brother was a rich man, that he had inherited a large fortune a twelvemonth before, and that he was to purchase an estate. In the conjunctive mood, accordingly, the historical tenses (imperfect and pluperfect) are not distinguished, though there be a relation to another event (§ 162); e. g. er hat erzählt, man habe den Hamlet gespielt, als er im Theater gewesen sei; er sei aber hinaus gegangen, nachdem er den ersten Akt gesehen habe, he said that Hamlet was acted when he was at the play, but that he left the play after having seen the first act. The quoted assertion generally stands in the present, perfect, or future tenses, though the verb of the principal sentence be in the imperfect or pluperfect; e. g. er sagte, er sei krank, or er sei krank gewesen, he told me that he was ill, or had been ill *. The German practice, however, is not strictly established in this respect; and the tenses of the conditional mood also are frequently employed instead of the present and perfect of the conjunctive; e. g. er sagte, er wäre in Paris gewesen, he said that he had been at Paris †. This is

* Drauf schrie er in die Gassen hinab, er sei der Schreiber der Maria, sei der Bösewicht, der sie falsch angeklagt, er sei ein falscher Zeuge. Sch.

Er meinte man müsse bei den Freuden der Kinder ernst scheinen. Göthe.

Sie behaupteten, obgleich der Lieutenant sehr viel gethan habe, so verlor er doch meist zu affectirt, dagegen spreche der junge Anfänger vorzüglich. Göthe.

Sie fragte, ob er noch etwas zu befehlen habe. Göthe.

† Das wären die Planeten, sagte mir mein Führer, sie regierten das Geschick. Sch.

done especially when the present and perfect tenses of the conjunctive do not differ in their form from the corresponding tenses of the indicative; e. g. *er sagte, ich ginge* (instead of *ich gehe*) *nach Frankfurt*, he said that I went to Frankfort*.†

Observation.—It will be seen, that the rules for the use of the conjunctive mood in German differ from those of the English language, in which an assertion quoted is commonly expressed either by the present or perfect indicative, when it stands after a verb in the present or perfect; e. g. *he tells me*, or *has told me*, that *he is ill*, or *has been ill*:—or by the imperfect or pluperfect indicative, if it stands after a verb in the imperfect or pluperfect; e. g. *he told me*, or *he had told me*, that *he was ill*, or *had been ill*. The proper manner for employing the conjunctive, accordingly, requires particular attention.

§ 165.

The *conditional* mood represents an assertion of the speaker or of a subject spoken of, as neither actually existing, nor even actually possible, but rather as *only conceived by the mind as possible*: thus in the sentence, *if he was still alive he might be a fortunate man*, the “being alive” and “being fortunate” are only conceived by the mind as possible, although they be in themselves impossible. An assertion which is actually in itself impossible, may thus be conceived by the mind, and represented as possible by the conditional mood, in the following circumstances:—

a.) If it is made a condition of, or depending upon another possibility, which also is not an actual possibility; e. g. *wenn er noch lebte, wäre er jetzt ein reicher Mann*, if he were still alive he would now be a rich man‡. Such a condition is

* Sie glaubten, sie würden (instead of werden) sich leicht als Helden darstellen. *Gothe.*

Er behauptete, nur ein festes Vergnügen könne bei den Menschen einen Werth haben; Kinder und Alte wüßten (instead of wissen) nicht zu schätzen was ihnen Gutes begegnete. *Gothe.*

Er meinte, man müsse die Kinder nicht merken lassen, wie lieb man sie habe, sie griffen (instead of greifen) immer zu weit um sich. *Gothe.*

† Grammatik. § 197.

‡ Wärest du wahr gewesen und gerade; Alles stünde ganz anders, er hätte nicht das Schreckliche gethan, die Guten hätten Kraft bei ihm behalten, nicht in der Schlimmsten Gari wäre er gefallen. *Sch.*

Wären diese Lords, wie Ihr sie schildert, verstummen müßte ich, hoffnungslos verloren wäre meine Sache, sprächen sie mich schuldig. *Sch.*

Dieses elende Werkzeug könnte mich retten, brächte mich schnell zu befreundeten Städten — — nähm er mich ein in den rettenden Raub. *Sch.*

frequently only understood and not expressed; e. g. *ich hätte die Sache anders gemacht*, I should have arranged the matter differently (if it had been my business *):—or it is contracted with the conditional sentence; e. g. *ich hätte an seiner Stelle anders gehandelt*, in his place (if I had been in his place) I should have acted otherwise †.

b.) If it is made a possibility wished for; e. g. *wäre er doch noch am Leben!* would that he were still alive! *hätte ich ihn doch nie gesehen!* O that I had never seen him ‡!

c.) If it is a questionable possibility; e. g. *wäre es denn wahr?* should it be true? *hättest du wirklich deinen Freund verrathen?* should you really have betrayed your friend §?

The use of the conditional mood depends not so much on the assertion being actually in itself impossible, as on its being conceived in the mind of the speaker and therefore represented as impossible. Thus in saying, *wenn er heute ankäme*, if he should arrive today,—the arrival is conceived and represented as impossible, though in fact it may be possible.

Though the present conditional (*ich spräche*) is formed from the imperfect indicative (*ich sprach*), and the perfect conditional (*ich hätte gesprochen*) from the pluperfect indicative (*ich hatte gesprochen*), these tenses, with respect to time, agree with the present and perfect indicative respectively; e. g. *wenn ich jetzt Zeit hätte, ginge ich spaziren*, if I had time now I should take a walk; *wenn er vor drei Monaten in Rom gewesen wäre, hätte er seinen Bruder angetroffen*, if he had been at Rome three months ago he would have met his brother. In point of time these sentences express the same; e. g. *I have time*, &c. if he *has been* at Rome, &c.

The first future conditional (*ich würde sprechen*) does not, in point of time, differ from the present (*ich spräche*), nor the

* Du könntest merken, daß du lästig bist. Sch.

† Du würdest wohl thun diesen Platz zu leeren. Sch.

‡ D, ging's von hier gerad in's Feld des Todes, und alle Schwerter durchdrängen meinen Busen! Sch.

Den mücht ich wissen, der der Treuste mir von Allen ist. Sch.

Wer mit Euch, wanderte, mit Euch schiffte! Sch.

§ Wär's möglich Vater? Sch.

Hättest du's mit Vorbedacht dahin treiben wollen? Sch.

Sollt' ich's nun im Ernst erfüllen müssen? Sch.

Gast freundlich hätte England sie empfangen? Sch.

second future (*ich würde gesprochen haben*) from the perfect (*ich hätte gesprochen*). The first and second futures are, however, used especially to express conditional possibility, the condition being expressed by the present and perfect; e. g. *wenn er hier wäre, würde er dich besuchen*, or *würde er dich besucht haben*, if he were here he would pay, or he would have paid you a visit*.

In order to render an expression less positive or more polite, an actual necessity as well as an actual possibility is, as in English, frequently represented as only conditional. For this purpose the conditional moods of the auxiliary verbs of mood, *müssen, sollen, wollen, and können, dürfen, mögen* (§ 70), are frequently employed instead of the indicative; e. g. *du solltest* or *du müßtest ihn besuchen*, you ought to (instead of must) pay him a visit; *ich wollte, Sie begleiteten mich*, I wished (instead of I wish) that you would accompany me; *Sie könnten mir das wol erlauben*, you might allow me that; *ich möchte hier bleiben*, I should like to stay here †. ‡

§ 166.

The imperative mood is employed in German as in English; e. g. *sprich!* speak (thou)! *sprechet!* speak (you)! *Laßt uns sprechen!* let us speak! The third person of the imperative, however, is generally supplied by that of the conjunctive mood; e. g. *es sei*, be it so; *er gehe*, let him go; *es werde Licht*, let there be light. The conjunctive mood is also employed when, according to the usual German mode of address (§ 121), the third person singular or plural is used instead of the second person: in that case, however, the personal pronoun follows the verb, as it does in the imperative proper (see § 207); e. g. *spreche er!* *sprechen Sie!*

A peculiar form of imperative expression is made in Ger-

* *Aufstehn würde Englands ganze Jugend, sähe der Britte seine Königin. Sch. Stünd' er ihr gegenüber, er würde sein Geständniß wiederrufen. Sch.*

† *Sollte nicht ein glückliches Naturell allein Schauspieler zum Ziele bringen? — — Anfang und Ende möchte es wohl sein und bleiben; aber in der Mitte dürfte dem Künstler Manches fehlen. Göthe.*

Schwerlich möchte sie der goldne Schlüssel schmecken. Sch.

‡ *Grammatik. § 198.*

man from the passive voice of either transitive or intransitive verbs, used personally or impersonally (§ 67), by which the subject is pointed out only in a general and indefinite way. These expressions, however, are always used elliptically, omitting the auxiliary verb of the passive voice, or even the verb, and retaining only an objective factor referred to the verb (§ 157); e. g. *ausgetrunken!* (*es werde ausgetrunken*) let the glass be emptied; *aufgestanden!* (*es werde aufgestanden*) let them rise; *an die Arbeit!* (*es werde an die Arbeit gegangen*) let them go to their work *.

When a positive command is to be expressed, the second person indicative is frequently used; e. g. *du gehst sogleich*, go directly †. When, on the other hand, a request is to be expressed in a submissive way, the conjunctive mood of the auxiliary verbs *mögen* and *wollen* is frequently used; e. g. *du wollest mir verzeihen*, please to pardon me; *mögen Sie meiner gedenken*, may you remember me ‡.

The imperative mood sometimes stands in the place of a conditional expression; e. g. *sei ohne Freund*, *wieviel verliert das Leben*, be without a friend (if you be without a friend), and your life loses much.

CHAPTER II.—*Syntax of the Attributive Combination.*

§ 167.

ANY predicative combination, as *die Sonne erwärmt*, the sun warms; *Wilhelm erobert*, William conquers; *das Licht kommt von dem Monde*, the light comes from the moon; may be changed into an attributive combination, by turning the predicate into an *attribute* (§ 12); e. g. *die wärmende Sonne*, the

* Wohl auf Kameraden! Auf's Pferd! auf's Pferd! ins Feld, in die Freiheit gezogen!

— Frisch Kameraden den Rappen gezäumt! die Brust zum Gefechte gelüftet! Sch.
Mit Eichenlaub den Hut bekränzt! Claudius.

† Hanna du bleibst. Sch.

Ihr schweigt, bis man euch aufruft. Sch.

‡ Was ich nun sprach, möge Niemand mich befragen. Sch.

warming sun; *Wilhelm der Eroberer*, William the Conqueror; *das Licht des Mondes*, the light of the moon (§ 12).

The attribute assumes either the form of an attributive adjective (*wärmend*), or of an attributive substantive in apposition (*der Eroberer*), or that of an attributive substantive in the genitive case (*des Mondes*), which is sometimes expressed by a preposition.

In each of these different forms the attribute, in as far as it is a notion, and not a mere relation, expresses like the predicate the notion of an activity referred to the notion of a person or thing. On that account also the different forms of the attribute are frequently employed one for another in different languages, and even in the same language; e. g. the *royal* favour, *die Gunst des Königes*; *popular* language, *die Sprache des Volkes*; a child *of three years*, *ein dreijähriges Kind*; Richard *lion-hearted*, *Richard Löwenherz*; a very *respectable* man, and a man *of great respectability*. The attributive combination differs from the predicative combination in not expressing the act of assertion, but only the notion of a person or thing: hence every notion which is referred in this way to a notion of a person or thing is considered as an attribute, and its expression, whatever be its form, as an attributive factor; e. g. in *der Better aus London*, the cousin from London; *der Mann im Monde*, the man in the moon.

The attributive relation is a relation of concord (§ 11, 12). This relation is expressed by the inflection of the substantive in apposition, as well as of the attributive adjective. The attributive genitive does not exactly express concord; it only denotes that a substantive has become an attributive by assuming in some measure the signification of an adjective; e. g. *the king's house*, instead of *the royal house*.

Observation.—In order to convert a predicative into an attributive combination, the predicate, if expressed by a simple verb or adjective, is turned into an attributive adjective, if the predicate is enlarged into an objective combination; e. g. the light *comes from the moon*; the house *belongs to the king*. The principal or objective factor alone is expressed, and assumes the form of the genitive case (*of the moon, the king's*), provided that the verb which is omitted (*comes, belongs*) may be understood by the form of the expression.

§ 168.

It has been remarked (§ 157) that a predicative combination or sentence expresses one thought; e. g. *man is mortal*: an attributive combination, on the other hand, e. g. *mortal man*, expresses one notion only. The unity of the notion expressed by the attributive combination is denoted by the unity of accentuation; for the attribute, being in general the principal factor, usually takes the principal accent; and the substantive referred to, being the subordinate factor, has the subordinate accent. Only when the attributive is a pronoun or other relational word, e. g. *my father*, viel Volk, it is considered as the subordinate factor, and therefore takes the subordinate accent.

The unity of the notion is also frequently expressed by unity of the form, the whole attributive combination being expressed by one word. This is effected either by contracting the two factors into one word, e. g. Königssohn, the son of a king (Compounds by contraction, § 57); or by omitting, by way of ellipsis, the substantive referred to, e. g. ein Armer, a poor man; ein Weiser, a wise man (Adjectives used substantively, § 7). Elliptical expressions like *I have been at Johnson's* (house), are less common in German than in English.

Observation.—The attributive adjective is frequently found to have the subordinate accent in German as in English. In general, however, this is the case only with adjectives implying qualities which are conceived as relations to the speaker, and on that account in some measure analogous to relational words. Of this description are adjectives implying the relations of space and time; e. g. lang, long; kurz, short; groß, great; klein, small; alt, old; jung, young: also those which express colour, taste, and other relations to the speaker; e. g. roth, red; weiß, white; süß, sweet; gut, good; schlecht, bad, &c. Adjectives also take the subordinate accent when they are employed by way of pleonasm; e. g. *a little child*; *good God*; *die dunkle Nacht*.

§ 169.

The attributive adjective agrees with the substantive referred to, in gender, number, and case; e. g. ein alter Mann, an old man; eine alte Frau, an old woman; ein altes Haus, an old house; alte Männer, old men; alten Frauen, to old women. When, however, the attributive adjective is considered as the

predicate of an abridged adjective sentence (§ 152), it is not inflected; e. g. *der Vater, mäßig aus Gewohnheit, hatte nicht gern Gastmähler*, frugal from habit (i. e. *being* frugal), my father did not like feasts. All attributive adjectives accordingly, standing after the substantive referred to, are not inflected; e. g. *die Mutter, umgeben von ihren Kindern*, the mother surrounded by her children *.

§ 170.

The different views in which the notion of a person or thing is conceived, are also pointed out by the two different forms of inflecting the attributive adjective, viz. by the *ancient* and the *modern* form (§ 116). In general it may be said, that the adjective takes the ancient form of inflection when the substantive has a general and indefinite sense, which is not limited by any article, pronoun, or numeral; e. g. *weißeß Brod*, white bread; *großer Ruhm*, great reputation; *mit treuer Liebe*, with faithful love; *mit warmer Milch*, with warm milk; *schöne Blumen*, beautiful flowers; *alte Leute*, old people; *junge Bäume*, young trees: it has the modern form of declension, on the other hand, when individuality or species of the substantive is distinguished by articles, pronouns, or numerals; e. g. *daß weiße Brod*, *der große Ruhm*, *mit dieser treuen Liebe*, *meine schönen Blumen*, *aller alten Leute*, of all old people. The following particular rules, however, may be given for the use of these two forms of inflection:—

1.) After the definite article, the demonstrative pronouns *dieser*, *jener*, *derselbe*, *derjenige*, and the indefinite numerals *jeder*, *jeglicher*, *jedweder*, the adjective has the modern form without any exception.

2.) After the numeral and indefinite article *ein*, and after the possessive pronouns *mein*, *dein*, &c., the adjective has also the modern form, except in the nom. masc. and nom. and accus. neut. sing., in which these pronouns and numerals have no sign of inflection, and the adjective therefore assumes the ancient form of inflection; e. g. *ein guter Mann*, and *eineß*

* Dort ein gestittetes Handelsvolk, schwebend von den Früchten seines Fleißes, wachsam auf Gesetze, die seine Wohltäter waren. Sch.

guten Mannes; ein, mein, or euer altes Haus, and eines, meines, or eures alten Hauses. The same rule applies to the singular of fein; e. g. fein guter Mann, and feines guten Mannes; fein altes Haus, and feines alten Hauses.

3.) After the pronouns *welcher* and *solcher*, and after the indefinite numerals *einige*, *etliche*, *feine* (in the plural number), *viele*, *wenige*, *mehrere*, *alle*, *manche*, adjectives are inflected in the modern form. In the nom. and acc. plur. however, the adjectives standing after them generally have the ancient form of inflection; e. g. *einige* or *viele* gute Freunde, some or many good friends, and *einiger* or *vieler* guten Freunde; *etliche*, *feine*, *viele*, *mehrere* neue Bücher, and *etlicher*, *feiner*, *mehrerer* neuen Bücher. When in *welcher*, *solcher*, *mancher*, *viel*, *wenig*, *mehr*, *weniger*, the sign of inflection is dropped (§ 127, 130, 136), the adjective standing after them commonly assumes the ancient form of inflection; e. g. *welch* or *solch* großer Günst, of what or of such great favour; *manch* schönes Bild, many a fine picture; *viel*, *wenig* or *mehr* süßer Milch, of much, little, or more sweet milk. The German practice is, however, not decidedly fixed with regard to the form of inflection of adjectives after the indefinite numerals.

4.) When the attributive adjective with its substantive stands in apposition to one of the personal pronouns *ich*, *du*, &c. (see § 171), the adjective is inflected in the modern form, except in the nom. sing.; e. g. *ich* armer Mann! *du* gutes Kind, and *ihr* armen Leute.

5.) After the cardinal numerals *zwei*, *drei*, &c. the adjective is inflected in the ancient form, unless the numeral be inflected; e. g. *im* Laufe *zwei* kummervoller Tage, in the course of two sorrowful days, and *im* Laufe *zweier* kummervollen Tage. When an adjective used substantively stands after *Etwas* and *Nichts* used adjectively (§ 136), it is inflected in the ancient form; e. g. *etwas* Gutes, *nichts* Neues, *mit etwas* Gutem, *mit nichts* Neuem.

6.) When two attributive adjectives stand before a substantive, the first of them being inflected in the ancient form, the inflection of the second depends on the manner in which the two adjectives are connected with the substantive. They may be both co-ordinate and equally attributive to their substan-

tive: in this case the second adjective has the same or even a stronger accentuation than the first, from which it may also be separated by the conjunction *und* without any change in the sense, and it takes the ancient form of inflection; e. g. *gute frische Butter*, good (and) fresh butter; *mit altem reinem Weine*, with old (and) pure wine; *frisches klares Wasser*, fresh (and) clear water; *gesunde nahrhafte Speisen*, wholesome (and) nourishing victuals. But the adjective standing first may also be considered as an attributive of the substantive already connected with the other adjective; in which case it has the principal accent, and may be turned separately into an adjective sentence: here the adjective standing last has the ancient form in the nom. sing. and plur., but the modern form in all other cases; e. g. *neue rothe Tinte*, new red ink (red ink which is new), and *mit neuer rothen Tinte*; *wohlfeiler alter Wein*, cheap old wine (old wine which is cheap), and *mit wohlfeilem alten Weine*; *frische schwedische Heringe*, new Swedish herrings, and *frischer schwedischen Heringe*. The practice of the language, however, is not quite decidedly established in this last point.

In the nom. and accus. sing. neut. of the attributive adjective, the sign of the ancient form *es* is frequently dropped; e. g. *kalt Wasser*, cold water; *alt Eisen*, old iron; *schön Wetter*, fine weather; *baar Geld*, ready money*. This is the case especially when the substantive referred to is a name of materials or an abstract (§ 6), the adjective having the subordinate accent (§ 168. *Obs.*). When by *viel*, *mehr*, *wenig*, *weniger*, a quantity is implied, the signs of inflection are dropped in all genders and cases (§ 136), unless they stand after the definite article or a pronoun; e. g. *das viele Geld*, *dieses wenige Brod*.

These rules, laid down for the use of the different forms of inflection in attributive adjectives, apply also to adjective pronouns and to numerals, as far as they admit of either forms of inflection (§ 123, 132, 133, 134, 136); e. g. *mit solchem Weine*, with such wine, and *einem solchen Weine*; *zweiter Theil*, second

* Ein uralt Wort. *Sch.*

Ein schwer Verbrechen. *Sch.*

Ein groß Gewühl. *Sch.*

part, and der zweite Theil; jedem Sohne, to each son, and einem jeden Sohne.

When the same adjective, pronoun, numeral, or article, refers to two substantives connected by the copulative conjunction *und*, it is, as in English, frequently omitted before the substantive standing last; e. g. die große Güte und Sorgfalt meines Freundes, the great kindness and attention of my friend; sein Fleiß und Eifer, his activity and zeal; ein Dichter und Held, a poet and hero. In German, however, this omission can be made only when the same adjective, pronoun, or article agrees with both the substantives in gender and number. We say accordingly, der große Eifer und die große Sorgfalt meines Freundes, the great zeal and care of my friend; ich habe meinen Bruder und meine Schwester gesehen, I have seen my brother and sister; der Neid und die Eifersucht, envy and jealousy. When, however, the same *form* of the adjective, pronoun, or article applies to different genders, the omission may also be made; e. g. alle Hunde und Katzen, all dogs and cats.

When two attributive combinations connected by the conjunction *und*, and having the same substantive referred to, are contracted (§ 152), the substantive takes the singular, and not, as in English, the plural number; e. g. die Deutsche und Englische Sprache, the German and English languages; die alte und neue Zeit, the old and new times; den ersten und letzten Tag, the first and last days.

§ 171.

The attributive *substantive in apposition*, like the attributive adjective, agrees with the substantive referred to in number and case; and in gender also, if it is one of those names of persons which admit of the distinction of gender; e. g. mein Bruder, der Hauptmann, my brother the captain; meines Bruders, des Hauptmannes, of my brother, &c.; die Knaben, meine Lieblinge, the boys my favourites; Sophie, meine Freundin, Sophia my friend; die Schwester, seine Führerin, the sister his guide*. When, however, one of the substantives in appo-

* Des gastlichen Hauses Schwelle hütet der Eid, der Erinnern Sohn. Sch.
 Mich schreckt die Eumenide, die Beschrmerin dieses Orts. Sch.
 Der strengen Diana, der Freundin der Jagden laßet uns folgen. Sch.

sition is a proper name, the case is expressed only in the other substantive; e. g. *die Macht des Kaisers Karl*, the power of the emperor Charles, or *Wilhelm des Eroberers*.

Substantives in apposition, e. g. in 'my brother *the captain*,' generally stand for an abridged accessory adjective-sentence (my brother *who is a captain*—see § 190). On that account they may also follow personal pronouns; e. g. *ich, der Jüngling, kann ihn, den alten Mann, nicht belehren*, I the youth cannot instruct him the old man*.

The substantive in apposition, being equivalent to an accessory sentence, has a greater importance of signification than an attributive adjective; accordingly it always takes the principal accent, whilst the attributive adjective frequently has only the subordinate accent (§ 168. *Obs.*). In order to give a greater emphasis to an attributive adjective, we frequently make it assume the form of a substantive in apposition; e. g. *sein Feind, der Unversöhnliche*, his enemy the irreconcilable one (instead of *der unversöhnliche Feind*); *sein Freund, der Bedachtsame*, his friend the cautious one (instead of *sein bedachtsamer Freund*)†.

In German, proper names of countries and places, as well as names of months, stand in apposition to their common names; e. g. *das Königreich Spanien*, the kingdom of Spain; *die Stadt London*, the city of London; *die Universität Göttingen*, the university of Göttingen; *der Monat Mai*, the month of May.

Proper names standing after titles and expressions of relationship, e. g. *Herr Walter*, Mr. Walter; *Frau Will*, Mrs. Will; *Doktor Gall*, Dr. Gall; *Vater Noah*, father Noah; *Bruder Wilhelm*, brother William; are not properly substantives in apposition. Titles and names of relationship in this position are rather to be considered in the light of relational attributes to the proper names; they are accordingly without

* *Ihr kennet ihn, den Schöpfer kühner Heere. Sch.*

‡ *Ich der Vernünftige grüße zu erst. Sch.*

† *Das Böse, das der Mann, der Mündige, dem Manne zufügt, vergibt sich schwer. Sch.*

Niemand, als du, soll diesen Krieg den Fürchterlichen enden. Sch.

Da wir die Nothwendigkeit, die Undankbare Fluchbeladene gethan. Sch.

Erspare dir die Qual der Trennung, der Nothwendigen. Sch.

either article or inflection; e. g. Doktor Gall's Vorlesungen, Dr. Gall's lectures; Kaiser Karl's Heere, the armies of the emperor Charles*.

§ 172.

When the attributive relation is expressed by a substantive which does not agree with the substantive referred to, in number and case, we term it the *genitive relation*; because the substantive either assumes the genitive case, or a preposition which may be considered as taking the place of the genitive case. The *attributive genitive relation*, der Bruder des Königs, the king's brother; des Vaters Haus, the father's house; ein Mann von Stande, a man of rank; is, however, to be distinguished from the *objective genitive relation*; e. g. ich schäme mich seiner Gesellschaft, I am ashamed of his company (see § 180). Nor can the attributive genitive relation be expressed by the genitive case itself or by a preposition indiscriminately: in order to decide which of them is to be employed, we must distinguish the different kinds of the genitive relation. These are,—

a) The relation of the *active subject* to an action or effect; e. g. der Lauf der Sonne, the course of the sun; der Zug eines Heeres, the march of an army; die Treue des Freundes, the fidelity of the friend; die Stärke des Elephanten, the strength of the elephant; das Gewebe der Spinne, the web of the spider; der Tempel Salomo's, the temple of Solomon; die Eier der Vögel, the eggs of birds.

b) The relation of a *possessor* to a thing possessed; e. g. der Garten des Fürsten, the garden of the prince; die Krone des Königs, the crown of the king; der Hut des Knaben, the hat of the boy.

c) The relation of *mutual connection of one person to another*, i. e. of a father to his son, of a brother to his brother or sister, of a master to his servant, of one friend or enemy to another, and *vice versâ*; e. g. der Vater des Mädchens, the father of the girl; der Diener meines Bruders, the servant of my brother; der Freund des Hauses, the friend of the family.

* Herzog Albrechts fürstliche Gemahlin, Graf Harrachs edle Tochter hätte so nicht empfangen werden sollen. Sch.

Es ist der blutige Schatten König Darnley's. Sch.

d) The relation of a *whole* to its parts; e. g. das Dach des Hauses, the roof of the house; der Gipfel eines Baumes the top of a tree; die Räder eines Wagens, the wheels of a carriage. We call this relation also that of the *partitive genitive*.

e) The relation of a *quality* to a person or thing; e. g. ein Mann unseres Standes, a person of our rank; ein Pferd von weißer Farbe, a horse of white colour; ein Geschäft von Wichtigkeit, a business of importance; ein Ring von Gold, a ring of gold. This relation has already been mentioned as the *predicative genitive* of the predicative combination (§ 158); and it retains the same name and character, although employed as an attributive factor.

§ 173.

The relations of the *active subject*, of the *possessor*, and of *mutual connection* of persons, are generally expressed in German by the genitive case, as may be seen from the examples quoted in § 172; and the genitive of the active subject and of the possessor can be expressed by the preposition *von* only when the case cannot be pointed out by inflection, either in the substantive itself, in an article, or in another attributive, as is the case in many proper names of places and countries, numerals, names of materials, and in the plural number of common names when they have no articles. We say, die Größe von Paris, the extent of Paris; der Koloss von Rhodus, the Colossus of Rhodes; *der Hafen von Cadix, the port of Cadiz; ein Vater von zehn Kindern, a father of ten children; der Geschmack von Milch, the taste of milk; die Nähe von Städten, the vicinity of cities *. And on the other hand, die Größe der Stadt Paris, or des jetzigen Paris; der Hafen des volkreichen Cadix; der Vater der vier ältesten Kinder; der Geschmack der saueren Milch; die Nähe der Städte Frankfurt und Mainz. The preposition, however, is also frequently employed before names of materials, as well as before proper names of countries and places, where the case might have been pointed out by inflection; e. g. der Geschmack von

* Die theure Frucht von dreißig Kriegsfahren. Sch.

Man hat mich vor ein Gericht von Männern vorgelodert. Sch.

Dies Geschlecht von Räufern plegt alles auf die Spitze gleich zu stellen. Sch.

Wein, the taste of wine; der König von Frankreich, the king of France; die Straßen von Wien, the streets of Vienna (instead of Weines, Frankreichs, Wiens). On the other hand, the definite article is frequently placed before proper names of persons, names of materials, and common names, for no other purpose but that of pointing out the genitive case by inflection; e. g. die Schätze des Krösus, the treasures of Cræsus; die Schwere der Luft, the weight of the air; der Gesang der Vögel, the singing of birds (§ 103).

In German the mutual connection of persons is never expressed by the dative case, as it is in English; e. g. *a* friend or a relation *to* this person; an enemy *to* the country.

The partitive genitive may be expressed in German either by the case, or by the preposition *von*; e. g. ein Theil der Stadt, and ein Theil von der Stadt, a part of the city. The use of the preposition is, however, more common than that of the case after numerals, definite and indefinite, and after superlatives; and then the prepositions *unter* and *aus* are also employed; e. g. vier or der vierte von or unter or aus den Schulknaben, four or the fourth of the school-boys; der treueste von or unter or aus meinen Freunden, the most faithful of my friends. The pronouns *derjenige*, *wer*, and *welcher*, are never followed by the case; and the partitive genitive of personal and demonstrative pronouns, as well as of indefinite numerals, if standing after pronouns, numerals, and superlatives, is generally expressed by a preposition; e. g. *derjenige von uns*, *wer von uns*, *jeder von diesen*, *Keiner von Jenen*, *der Beste von Allen* *. When the date of a month is to be expressed, the ordinal numeral is not employed substantively, as in English, but adjectively; e. g. *er kam den zehnten April an*, und *reiste den ersten Mai ab*, he arrived the tenth of April, and departed again the first of May.

The predicative genitive is, as in English, almost always expressed by the preposition; e. g. *ein Mann von Ansehen*, a man of consequence; *ein Mann von großer Gelehrsamkeit*, a man of much learning; *eine Sache von geringem*

* Ich weiß doch, was mir ein Jeder von Euch gilt. Sch.
Den möcht' ich wissen, der mir der Treueste von Allen ist. Sch.

Werthe, a matter of little value*. We also say, however, eine Sache geringen Werthes, eine Person hohen Standes, a person of high rank.

The names of things measured are not commonly connected by the attributive genitive relation with the names of the measure, as is generally done in English, e. g. a glass *of* wine, three pound *of* bread, a couple *of* apples: but the names of the measure are, like numerals, regarded as relational attributives to the names of the things measured, and not commonly inflected; e. g. mit drei Paar Schuhen, with three pair of shoes; von zwei Duzend Eiern, of two dozen of eggs; mit zwei Eskadron Reitern, with two squadrons of cavalry; mit ein Paar Freunden, with a few friends; mit einer Menge Kindern, with a number of children. When expressions of this description form the subject of a sentence, the verb commonly agrees with the name of the thing measured; e. g. ein Duzend Hasen sind geschossen, a dozen hares have been killed; eine Menge Knaben sind beisammen, a number of boys are assembled. Even the name of the thing measured, when of the description of names of materials (§ 6), is not commonly inflected; e. g. mit einer Flasche Wein, with a bottle of wine; von zwei Pfund Brod, of two pounds of bread; mit drei Scheffel Korn, with two bushels of corn; von zwei Maß Del, of two quarts of oil. When, however, the name of a thing measured has another attribute connected with it, it commonly stands in the genitive relation, as in English; e. g. eine Flasche dieses Weines, a bottle of this wine; zwei Pfund frischen Brodes, two pounds of new bread; eine Menge fröhlicher Knaben, a number of happy boys. Ein Paar, a few, is frequently used in the signification of an indefinite numeral, the article not being declined; e. g. in ein Paar Tagen, in a few days; mit ein Paar Worten, with a few words†.

Observation.—In English, the genitive of the active subject and of the possessor is frequently turned into an adjective; e. g. in *agricultural* distress, *popular* favour, *ministerial* influence, *commercial* interest, *colonial* produce, *mental* eye; instead of, distress *of the agriculturists*, &c. This practice is

* Ihr selbst erklärt den Schotten Aurl für einen Mann von Tugend und Gewissen. Sch.

† Grammatik. § 205.

adopted in some German expressions; e. g. *das väterliche Ansehen*, paternal authority; *das königliche Schloß*, the royal castle: but it is in general not conformable to the German idiom.

§ 174.

The different kinds of attributive genitives pointed out in § 172, are the result of a predicative converted into an attributive relation (§ 167); e. g. *the crown of* (i. e. which belongs to) *the king*; *Solomon's temple* (i. e. the temple built by Solomon). On the other hand, in expressions like *the education of boys*, *the king's coronation*, the genitive results rather from an objective relation (to educate boys, to crown the king), which is converted into an attributive relation, in which the objective factor (boys, king) has taken the form of an attributive genitive only in consequence of the verb having assumed the form of a substantive. This genitive, which we term the attributive genitive *of the object*, can accordingly stand only with verbal substantives (§ 32). In German, however, an attributive relation of this description is in general expressed by the genitive *case* only, when the verbal substantive referred to is a secondary derivative of the form *ung* or *er*, made from a transitive verb, and accordingly still expressive of the transitive relation (§ 38, 43); e. g. *die Erziehung der Kinder*, the education of children; *die Erfindung des Schießpulvers*, the invention of gunpowder; *die Unterdrückung des Volkes*, the oppression of the people; *die Beschüßung der Armen*, the protection of the poor; *der Schöpfer der Welt*, the creator of the world; *der Erbauer der Stadt*, the founder of the town. A few primary substantives (§ 32), formed from transitive verbs, also take the genitive case in this way; e. g. *der Kauf eines Hauses*, the purchase of a house; *die Wahl eines Freundes*, the choice of a friend; *der Verlust des Vermögens*, the loss of fortune; *der Besitz eines großen Vermögens*, the possession of a large fortune; *der Gebrauch der Zeit*, the employment of time.

When, on the other hand, the verbal substantive referred to is derived from an intransitive verb governing a preposition, the attributive relation is expressed by the preposition which the verb governs; e. g. *Durst nach Ruhm*, thirst after fame; *der Gedanke an Gott*, the thought of God; *Furcht vor Gefahr*,

fear of danger; Vertrauen auf seine Macht, confidence in his power; die Sorge für die Kinder, the care of the children; Streben nach Vergnügen, the pursuit of pleasure.

Verbal substantives frequently require a preposition, even though the intransitive verb from which they are derived govern the genitive case; e. g. die Reue über einen Fehler, repentance on account of a fault; der Ekel an einem Geschäfte, the disgust at an affair; der Bedarf an Kleidern, the necessary provision of clothing; der Spott über seine Feinde, his derision of his enemies*.

CHAPTER III.—Syntax of the Objective Combination.

§ 175.

THE unity of two notions, one modifying the other, which is that of an action, is expressed by the objective combination; e. g. *writes a letter, shed tears, addicted to pleasure*. The two factors of the objective combination are, the Predicate, which expresses the action (*writes, shed, addicted*); and the Objective factor, i. e. the notion which is referred to the action (*a letter, tears, pleasure*). The objective generally is the principal factor (§ 14), and takes the principal accent: the predicate, on the other hand, which is the principal factor of the predicative combination (§ 157), is commonly subordinate in the objective combination.

The predicate is always expressed by a notional word, viz. a verb or an adjective, whilst the objective factor may be represented either by a notional or by a relational word (*likes him, lives here*): in the latter case, however, it is considered as the subordinate factor, and has the subordinate accent.

Not only the predicate of a sentence, i. e. a verb or predicative adjective, but also attributive adjectives, and the participial forms (§ 74), viz. infinitives, supines, participles, and

* Grammatik. § 203.

gerunds (§ 75, 76, 77, 140), whatever be their position and office in the sentence, may constitute the factor referred to of an objective combination; e. g. ein in seinem Amte fleißiger Mann, a man active in his office; Wasser trinken ist gesund, it is wholesome to drink water; er kommt um seinen Bruder zu sehen, he comes in order to see his brother; ihm die Hände drückend, nahm er Abschied, shaking his hands, he took leave. Even an attributive factor, if referred to a verbal substantive, may retain the form of the objective factor required by the verb, from which the verbal substantive is derived; e. g. die Flucht nach Egypten, the flight into Egypt. (See Genitives of the object, § 174.)

The unity of a notion, which is expressed by an objective combination, is frequently accompanied by a unity of the form, effected by contracting the objective combination into one word: thus the objective combination zu Schiffe fahren, to sail in a ship; Fische fangen, to catch fish; Gras fressen, to eat grass; Anker werfen, to cast anchor; are converted into the verbs schiffen, fischen, grasen, anfern. Single notions of actions are, on the other hand, frequently extended into the form of an objective combination: thus the notions, helfen, to assist; sorgen, to care; untergehen, to perish; verderben, to perish and to destroy; büßen, to atone; achten, to attend; umbringen, to kill; troßen, to defy; bewirken, to effect; rathe, to advise; may also be expressed by the objective combination, Hülfe leisten, to give help; Sorge tragen, to take care; zu Grunde gehen, zu Grunde richten, to go and to put to ruin; Buße thun, to do penance; Acht geben, to pay attention; ums Leben bringen, to deprive of life; Troß bieten, ins Werk setzen, Rath geben. Compound expressions of this description may be considered in the light of compound separable verbs (§ 59), and are treated like them in the construction of sentences.

§ 176.

Every notion referred to a verb or adjective, in whatever form it be expressed, is to be considered as an objective factor; e. g. he will come *tomorrow*; he *stays at home*; he works *actively*; he travels *with haste*; he calls you *foolish*; I think

him *clever*; he looks *pale*. We have, however, distinguished the objective relation as that of causality (see § 177), that of locality (see § 186), that of time (see § 187), and that of manner (see § 188). The relation of causality is expressed in German by cases and prepositions; e. g. er freuet sich seines Glückes, he rejoices at his good luck; er fürchtet sich vor dem Gewitter, he is afraid of the thunderstorm. The relation of locality, of time, and that of manner, is expressed by prepositions and adverbs; e. g. er wohnt auf dem Berge, he lives upon the hill; er reiset in der Nacht, he travels by night; er arbeitet mit Fleiß, he works with diligence; er wendet sich links he turns to the left side; er verreiset morgen, he departs tomorrow; er arbeitet fleißig, he works diligently. Even the relations of locality, time, and manner, however, are sometimes represented also by cases; e. g. Man findet aller Orten ehrliche Leute, one meets honest people in all places; er arbeitet den ganzen Tag, he works the whole day; er verließ uns frohen Muthes, he left us in good spirits.

Relation of Causality.

§ 177.

By the relation of causality we understand not only the relation of an object which is conceived to be the *cause*, properly so called, of an action,—e. g. he is ashamed of *his company*, he is fatigued *by walking*,—but also the relation of an object which is conceived to *suffer* an action, or to be the *effect* or the *purpose* of an action; e. g. he drinks *wine*, he makes a *fool* of him, he travels *for his amusement*. Language conceives and represents every causation as a motion; we accordingly distinguish in the relation of causality two *directions* analogous to the directions of local motion (§ 143). The relation of the object which is conceived as a *cause*, properly so called (*of his company, from walking*), corresponds to the direction *from* (*whence*); whereas, on the contrary, the relation of an object conceived as *suffering* the action (*wine*), or as the *effect* (*a fool*), or as a *purpose* (*for his amusement*), corresponds to the direction *towards* (*whither*). The direction *from* the object is expressed by the genitive and (in Latin) the ablative cases, and

especially by such prepositions as denote the same direction of local motion; e. g. *of, from* (in French *de*). The direction *towards* the object, on the other hand, is expressed by the accusative case, and by such prepositions as denote the same direction of local motion; e. g. *to, into, for* (in French *à, pour*).

The relation of causality, in both directions, is either the relation of a person, e. g. he is recommended *by a friend*, he obeys *his father*; or the relation of a thing, e. g. he weeps *for joy*, he eats *bread*, he wishes *for an answer*. The distinction of persons and things is more accurately attended to and pointed out by the form of the objective factor in German than in English.

In the relation of causality, the object is for the most part connected with the predicate (verb or adjective) in such a way, that the notion of the predicate remains incomplete without the notion of an object referred to it. Thus, e. g. in the combinations, he drinks *wine*, he wants *money*, he is guilty *of a murder*, he wishes *for an answer*, the notions *drinks, wants, guilty, wishes*, are incomplete without the *supplementary* notions of the object referred to them: the form of the objective factor, therefore, depends on the notion of the verb or adjective, and we say that a case or a preposition is *governed* by the verb or adjective. In some relations of cause, however, e. g. he died *from poison*, he plays *for money*, the object is not connected in this way with the verb or adjective.

The relation of causality is either *real*, i. e. a relation of a *real* cause or effect, &c. to a *real* action, e. g. *to drink wine, to fall ill from the heat, to turn to dust*; or *moral*, i. e. a relation of the object to a *will, wish, or design*, e. g. *to speak from vanity, to seek for praise, to beg for money, to strive after fame*; or *logical*, i. e. a relation of the object to an *act of thinking, knowing, or judging*, e. g. *to know by experience, to remember his friend, to think one a fool, to consider one as a hypocrite*. The difference of the real, moral, and logical relations also is pointed out by different forms of the objective factor*.

* Grammatik. § 209.

§ 178.

According to the distinctions now pointed out (§ 177), all varieties of the relation of causality may be summed up in the following way.

All relations of causality are either relations of *persons* or relations of *things*. To the relation of persons, which is expressed in German either by the dative case, e. g. *er gehorcht dem Vater*, he obeys his father, or by the preposition *von*, e. g. *er wird von seinem Lehrer gelobt*, he is praised by his teacher, we give the name of the *Dative relation*.

The relation of *things* is either the relation of an object conceived as a *cause*, properly so called, and corresponding to the direction *from*; or the relation of an object conceived as a *suffering* object, or as an *effect* or *purpose*, and corresponding to the direction *towards*. In the relation corresponding to the direction *from*, the object is either conceived to be the *supplementary* notion to the notion of the verb or adjective (§ 177), or it is not considered in this light. The relation of the supplementary object is expressed in German either by the genitive case, e. g. *er schämt sich seiner Gesellschaft*, he is ashamed of his company; or by prepositions, e. g. *stolz auf seine Macht*, proud of his power:—we call this the *Genitive relation*. The relation of an object not conceived to complete the notion of the verb or adjective, is expressed in German by prepositions; e. g. *von Hunger sterben*, to die from hunger; *mit Gift tödten*, to kill by poison:—we call this the *Ablative relation*. In the relation corresponding to the direction *towards*, the object is either conceived as *suffering* the action, or as the *effect* or *purpose* of the action. We give the name of the *Accusative relation* to that of the suffering object, which is always expressed by the accusative case; and we term the *Factitive relation* that of an effect or purpose, which is expressed either by the accusative case, e. g. *er nennt ihn einen Dieb*, he calls him a thief; or by the nominative, e. g. *er wird ein Heuchler*, he becomes a hypocrite; or by prepositions, e. g. *er macht ihn zum Heuchler*, he makes him a hypocrite.

There are, then, five kinds of relation of causality, viz. the *dative*, the *genitive*, the *ablative*, the *accusative*, and the

Factitive relation. In some languages a particular case is appropriated to each of these relations. In German there are cases only for the dative, genitive, and accusative relation *.

Observation 1.—The German dative, genitive, and accusative cases, correspond in a great measure to the same cases of the Greek language. The Latin ablative case corresponds to the ablative relation, e. g. *fame mori*; and when it expresses an object completing the notion of the verb or adjective, to the genitive relation also, e. g. *vesci pane, dignus laude*. In the Finnish and in some other languages we meet with a *factitive* case corresponding to the factitive relation. In other ancient and modern languages this relation is expressed by an accusative case, in concord with the accusative of the suffering object, e. g. *eligit Paulum ducem*; or even by a nominative of the subject, e. g. *Paulus eligitur dux*: in both of these cases, however, there is not an attributive relation to a substantive (*Paulus*), but an objective relation of causality, i. e. an effect referred to the verb (*eligo*); and they are therefore to be considered as forms of the factitive relation.

Observation 2.—The use of particular cases and prepositions depends not so much on the nature of the relation *in itself*, as on the manner in which it is *conceived* by the mind, or was conceived at that period of the language when the form in which it is expressed was first adopted. This accounts for the different forms which are frequently employed in different languages, and even in one and the same language, in order to express the same kinds of relations. Thus the verbs *folgen*, to follow; *gehörchen*, to obey; *dienen*, to serve; *helfen*, to help; and many others, which are conceived in English as transitive verbs, and accordingly govern the accusative case of the suffering object, are intransitive in German, and govern the dative case of the person. There are, in particular, many verbs in English, and in other modern languages, which are now conceived as transitive verbs governing the accusative case of the suffering object, whilst in the older languages they were conceived as intransitive verbs, governing the genitive case of an object conceived as causing the action. Thus *essen*, to eat; *trinken*, to drink; *hören*, to hear; *sehen*, to see; *berühren*, to touch; in the ancient German language govern the genitive, as the verbs corresponding to them do in Greek; and many verbs still govern the genitive case in German, though the verbs corresponding to them in English govern the accusative †.

a. *Dative relation.*

§ 179.

The relation of causality conceived as a relation of *person* (§ 178), is in German commonly expressed by the *dative* case.

* Grammatik. § 210.

† Grammatik. § 210. Anmerk. 1.

The use of the dative case, however, does not depend so much on the object being the notion of a person, as on the notion of the verb or adjective *naturally requiring a person* for its object. Thus the verbs *to obey, to serve, to help, to follow, to trust*, naturally require the notion of a person, and not of a thing, *obeyed, served, helped, followed, &c.* though the object may sometimes become a thing; e. g. *to obey necessity*.

The dative case is governed in German by the following intransitive verbs:—

antworten, to answer.
 begegnen, to meet.
 behagen, to please.
 bekommen, to agree with.
 bevorstehen, to impend.
 danken, to thank.
 dienen, to serve.
 drohen, to threaten.
 eintreffen, to occur.
 fehlen, to be wanting.
 fluchen, to curse.
 folgen, to follow.
 fröhnen, to do service.
 gebühren, to be due.
 gefallen, to please.
 gehören, to belong.
 gehorchen, to obey.
 gelingen, to succeed.
 genügen, to suffice.
 gereichen, to turn out.

geziemen, to be becoming.
 gleichen, to be like.
 helfen, to help.
 huldigen, to do homage.
 mangeln, to be wanting.
 nützen, to be useful.
 obliegen, to apply to, to be incumbent.
 schaden, to hurt.
 scheinen, to appear.
 schmeicheln, to flatter.
 steuern, to restrain.
 trotzen, to bid defiance.
 trauen, to trust.
 unterliegen, to be overcome by.
 widersprechen, to contradict.
 widerstehen, to oppose.
 wehren, to prevent.
 weichen, to yield.
 willfahren, to grant.

and some others.

Many transitive verbs, besides governing the accusative of the suffering object, have also the dative of the person: such are,—

befehlen, to order.
 berichten, to report.
 bezahlen, to pay.
 bieten, to offer.

borgen, to lend.
 bringen, to bring.
 geben, to give.
 gebieten, to command.

geloben, to promise.
 gestatten, to permit.
 gewähren, to grant.
 glauben, to believe (one).
 gönnen, to wish.
 klagen, to complain.
 lassen, to leave.
 leihen, to lend.
 leisten, to afford.
 liefern, to deliver.
 melden, to announce.
 nehmen, to take away (from one).

offenbaren, to reveal.
 opfern, to sacrifice.
 rathe, to advise (one).
 rauben, to rob (one).
 reichen, to reach.
 schenken, to present.
 senden, to send.
 stehlen, to steal (from one).
 weihen, to consecrate.
 widmen, to dedicate.
 zeigen, to show.

and some others; e. g. *ich berichtete ihm unsern Sieg*, I reported our victory to him; *er nahm, raubte, stahl mir mein Geld*, he took, stole my money from me, robbed me of my money.

A great many transitive and intransitive verbs, compounded with the prefixes *er*, *ver* (§ 61), and *ent* (§ 62), e. g. *erlauben*, to permit; *erscheinen*, to appear; *erwidern*, to reply; *erweisen*, to show; *verbieten*, to forbid; *verzeihen*, to forgive; *versagen*, to refuse; *versprechen*, to promise; *verhehlen*, to conceal; *entgehen*, *entfliehen*, to escape; *entsprechen*, to correspond; also govern the dative case of the person; e. g. *ich erlaubte ihm zu gehen*, I permitted him to go; *verzeih uns unsere Schulden*, forgive us our trespasses; *er entfloß mir*, he escaped from me. The same applies to many verbs compounded with prepositions; e. g. *abschlagen*, to refuse; *abtreten*, to make cession; *anstehen*, to become; *antragen*, to offer; *auftragen*, to charge; *beistehen* and *beispringen*, to assist; *beitreten* and *beistimmen*, to accede; *unterwerfen*, to subdue; *nachsingen*, to sing in imitation of; *vorsingen*, to sing before another (§ 59); *zuschreiben*, to ascribe to; *zusagen*, to suit; *zusommen*, to become; and others, e. g. *daß steht dir an*, or *daß kommt dir zu*, that becomes you; *Cæsar hat den Römern Gallien unterworfen*, Cæsar has subjected Gaul to the Romans; *er hat uns beige stimmt*, he has acceded to our opinion.

The dative case of the person is governed moreover by the adjectives,—

ähnlich, like.
 angenehm, pleasant.

anständig, offensive.
 bekannt, known.

bequem, convenient.	lästig, troublesome.
bewußt, known.	lieb, dear.
dienlich, serviceable.	nachtheilig, prejudicial.
eigen, own.	nahe, near.
fremd, strange.	nützlich, useful.
freundlich, kind.	schädlich, hurtful.
gegenwärtig, present.	schuldig, indebted (to).
gemäß, suited (to).	treu, faithful.
geneigt } inclined (to).	überlegen, superior.
gewogen }	verdächtig, suspected (by).
gewachsen, equal (to).	verderblich, detrimental.
gleich, equal (to).	verhaßt, hated. (by).
gnädig, gracious.	verwandt, related (to).
heilsam, wholesome (for).	vortheilhaft, advantageous.
hold, kind.	widrig, contrary.
abhold, unkind.	willkommen, welcome.

and by those derived from verbs governing the dative case; e. g. anständig, becoming; dienstbar, bound to service; ergeben, addicted; gehorsam, obedient, &c.

The person to whose satisfaction or advantage, and to whose displeasure or disadvantage, an action is referred, is also expressed by the dative case, though the notion of the verb is not completed by the object; e. g. *der Schneider macht mir einen Rock*, the tailor makes me a coat; *dir blühen keine Rosen*, no roses are blooming for thee; *er singt dir ein Lied*, he sings a song to you; *der Schuh ist mir zu enge*, the shoe is too tight for me; *der Wein ist mir gut genug*, the wine is good enough for me*. This relation, however, may also be expressed by the preposition *für*, as in English; e. g. *der Schneider macht für mich (for me) einen Rock*.

The dative relation comprehends also that relation of the active subjects, which completes the notion of a verb in the passive voice; e. g. he is beaten *by his* brother. In German it is always expressed by the preposition *von*; e. g. *er wird von seinem Bruder geschlagen*, *er ist von meinem Bruder gesehen worden*, he has been seen by my brother. The dative case is however employed, whenever the active subject is referred to

* *War ich ihm, was er mir. Sch.*

Ohne die Saat erblüht ihm die Ernte. Sch.

verbal adjectives of a passive signification formed by the affix *bar* (§ 51); e. g. *dieser Brief ist mir nicht leßbar*, this letter is to me illegible; *die Sache ist mir nicht denkbar*, the matter is inconceivable to me; *der Komet ist uns nicht sichtbar*, the comet is not visible to us.

Observation 1.—In German, the personal relation completing the notion of the verb or adjective is always expressed by the dative case, to which the preposition *to* corresponds in English. A preposition occurs only in the expressions, *auf Einen zürnen*, *auf Einen böse sein*, to be angry with a person; *mit Einem verbinden*, *vereinigen*, *vermählen*, *verheirathen*, to unite, to marry one to; *mit Einem vergleichen*, to compare with.

Observation 2.—In German, the dative of a substantive is frequently employed instead of the genitive of the possessor (§ 172), and the dative of the substantive personal pronoun instead of the possessive pronoun; e. g. *Sie stehen meinem Bruder*, or *ihm im Wege*, you stand in *my brother's*, or in *his* way; *er sieht dem Vater*, or *ihm nach den Augen*, he looks at *his father's*, or at *his* eyes; *er tastet dem Manne*, or *ihm an die Ehre*, he touches *this man's*, or *his* honour; *es schneidet mir ins Herz*, it cuts me to the heart; *er salbte mir das Haupt*, he anointed *my* head; *der Kopf thut mir weh*, *my* head aches.

Observation 3.—The dative of the person is also employed in a number of impersonal expressions, made by means of adjectives, and peculiar to the German language. Thus we say, *es ist mir ängstlich*, *bang*, I am afraid, alarmed; *es ist mir leid*, I am sorry; *es ist mir kalt*, *warm*, I feel cold, warm. For the impersonal verb governing the dative case, see § 182.

Observation 4.—*Lehren*, to teach, is used with the dative of the person and the accusative of the thing; e. g. *er lehrt mir Arithmetik*, he teaches me arithmetic. But when an infinitive stands in the place of the accusative of the thing, the person commonly takes the accusative case; e. g. *er lehrt mich tanzen*, he teaches me dancing.

Observation 5.—In popular language, the dative case of the personal pronouns is sometimes employed in a peculiar way, to refer an assertion to the speaker or to a person spoken to; e. g. *ich lebe mir das Landleben*, I (for my part) prefer living in the country; *das war Dir* (*Euch*, *Ihnen*) *eine Freude!* that was a pleasure indeed!

b. Genitive relation.

§ 180.

All relations of an object which is conceived as a thing *causing an action*, and as *completing the notion* of the action, are expressed in German by the genitive case, or by prepo-

sitions standing instead of that case. The genitive relation is, for the most part, of the description of a *moral* or *logical* relation (§ 177), and generally applies to intransitive verbs signifying a wish, desire, want, aversion, perception, knowledge, &c. It differs in this way from the accusative relation, which generally is a *real* relation, and applies only to transitive verbs (see § 182) *.

The genitive case is governed by the intransitive verbs, *ent-rathen*, to dispense with; *ermangeln*, to be without; *gedenken*, to think of; *harren*, to wait for; *lachen*, to laugh at; *spotten*, to mock; *leben* (*der Hoffnung*), to live (in the hope); e. g. *er ermangelte des Nothwendigsten*, he is in want of the most necessary things; *gedenket meiner*, think of me. It is also governed by,—

1.) The following reflective verbs:

- sich annehmen*, to interest oneself for.
- *bedienen*, to make use of.
- *befleissen*, to apply to something.
- *begeben*, to resign, to give up.
- *bemächtigen*, to take possession of.
- *bemeistern*, to take (a place).
- *bescheiden*, to acquiesce in.
- *besinnen*, to remember.
- *entäussern*, to alienate.
- *enthalten*, to abstain from.
- *entschlagen*, to rid oneself of.
- *entsinnen*, to remember.
- *erbarmen*, to take pity upon one.
- *erinnern*, to remember.
- *erwehren*, to defend oneself from.
- *freuen*, to rejoice at †.
- *getrösten*, to trust in.
- *rühmen*, to boast of.
- *schämen*, to be ashamed of.
- *unterfangen*,
- *unterwinden*,
- *vermessen*,

} to dare (a thing).

* Grammatik. § 211.

† Deines lieblichen Eintritts werden sich freuen die Penaten des Hauses. *Sch.*

sich versehen, to expect (a thing).

— wehren, to defend oneself.

— weigern, to refuse.

e. g. er hat sich seiner Rechte begeben, he has given up his rights; ich konnte mich nicht des Zornes enthalten, I could not resist being angry; ich kann mich jener Begebenheit nicht entsinnen, I cannot remember that event; er rühmt sich seiner Laster, he boasts of his vices. Of this description are also the impersonal expressions, es lohnt sich der Mühe, it is worth the trouble; es jammert mich des Volkes, I take pity upon the people.

2.) The following transitive verbs, governing the accusative case of the person :

anflagen, to accuse.

belehren, to inform one of.

berauben, to rob.

beschuldigen, to accuse.

entbinden, } to release one

entladen, } from.

entkleiden, to deprive.

entlassen, to dismiss from.

entledigen, to dispense.

entsetzen, to turn out from
an office.

entwöhnen, to wean.

losprechen, to acquit.

mahnen, to remind.

überführen, to convict.

überheben, to save one, e. g. the
trouble.

überzeugen, to persuade.

versichern, to assure of.

verweisen des Landes, to banish
(from the country).

würdigen, to think (one) worthy
of.

zeihen, to accuse.

e. g. Sie wurden ihres Eides entbunden, they were released from their oath; er wurde seiner Schätze beraubt, he was robbed of his treasures; seiner Würde entkleidet, deprived of his dignity; des Verbrechens überführt, convicted of his crime; ich würdigte ihn nicht des Anblicks, I did not deign to look at him.—Versichern, however, also takes the dative case of the person and the accusative of the thing; e. g. einem einen Vortheil versichern, to secure an advantage to one.

3.) The following adjectives :

bedürftig, in want of.

bewußt, conscious of.

eingedenk, thinking of.

fähig, capable.

froh*, happy with.

gewärtig, in expectation of.

* Des schönsten Anblicks wird mein Auge froh. Sch.

gewiß, certain of.	theilhaft, partaking in.
benöthigt, in need of.	verdächtig, suspected of.
kundig, acquainted with.	verlustig, losing something.
mächtig, in possession of.	würdig, worthy.
schuldig, guilty of.	

e. g. seiner Schuld bewußt, conscious of his own crime; er ist des Weges kundig, he knows the way; der Sprache mächtig, knowing the language; er ist der Krone verlustig, he loses his crown.

The verbs, *achten*, to pay attention; *bedürfen*, to stand in need; *begehren*, to wish for; *brauchen*, to want *; *erwähren*, to mention; *genießen*, to enjoy; *pflegen*, to take care; *schonen*, to spare; *verfehlen*, to miss; *vergessen*, to forget; *wahrnehmen*, to perceive; *warten*, to attend; and the adjectives, *gewahr*, aware; *gewohnt*, accustomed; *loß*, rid of; *müde satt* and *überdrüssig*, tired of; *voll*, full; *werth*, worth;—are used with the accusative as well as with the genitive case. The same applies to adjectives implying quantity; e. g. *eines Fußes* and *einen Fuß lang*, one foot long; *eines Zolles*, or *einen Zoll dick*, one inch thick.

Some of the verbs and adjectives now mentioned take either the genitive case, or one of the prepositions standing in place of that case; e. g. *sich einer Sache*, and *über eine Sache freuen*, to rejoice at something. Other verbs and adjectives, on the contrary, are used only with a preposition; and in general it may be said, that in the progress of the language the use of the prepositions encroaches upon that of the genitive.

The following prepositions stand in this way in place of the genitive case:

An, with the dative case, stands with the verbs *hindern*, to prevent; *leiden*, to be ill of; *sterben*, to die of; *sich ergehen*, to delight in; *sich rächen*, to take revenge upon; *zweifeln*, to doubt †; *es fehlt*, *es mangelt*, *es gebricht*, there is want of ‡; and with the adjectives, *arm*, poor; *reich*, rich; *leer*, void of §; *krank*, ill of;

* Nicht mehr der Schwester braucht's, der Liebe Band zu flechten. Sch.

† An deiner Unschuld hab' ich nie gezweifelt. Sch.

‡ Nicht an Rath gebricht's der Mutterliebe. Sch.

§ Das Herz war an Wünschen leer, doch nicht an Freuden arm. Sch.

ähnlich, like in some quality; gleich, equal in; groß, great in; klein, little in: and in the expressions, an einer Sache Freude, Gefallen, Lust haben, to be pleased with something; an Einem Trost, Schutz haben, to find comfort, protection in a person. The same preposition, with the accusative case, stands with the verbs mahnen, erinnern, to remind of; gewöhnen, to accustom to; glauben, to believe in; denken, to think of*.

Von stands with the verbs entblößen, to deprive of; entfernen, to remove from; befreien, to deliver from; los sagen, los sprechen, to acquit from; entsetzen, to remove from; entwöhnen, to wean of: and with the adjective frei, free of, exempt from. The same preposition denotes the logical relation of an object to an act of thinking or speaking, and stands in this way like *de* in Latin, and *of* in English, with the verbs denken, to think; träumen, to dream; glauben, to believe; urtheilen, to judge; wissen, to know; sagen, to tell; sprechen, to speak; hören, to hear, &c. If, however, we wish to express in these verbs a *dwelling* upon the subject, über with the accusative case is employed. Thus we say, von einer Sache sprechen, urtheilen, to speak, to judge *of* a matter; and über eine Sache sprechen, to speak *about* a matter; über etwas nachdenken, to meditate upon something.

Mit stands with anfangen, to begin with; endigen, to finish with; versorgen, versehen, to furnish with; sich befassen, to engage in; sich behelfen, to make shift with; sich begnügen, vorlieb nehmen, to content oneself with; zufrieden†, content; and with most of the derivative verbs formed from substantives and adjectives by means of the prefix *be* (§ 60); e. g. begaben, belohnen, beschränken, bemühen, belasten, befehen, bepflanzen, to gift, to reward, to crown, to trouble, to load, to occupy, to plant with.

Über, with the accusative case, stands with herrschen, schalten, walten, to rule over, and with many verbs implying affections of the mind; e. g. spotten, to mock; zürnen, to be angry at; lachen, to laugh at; trauern, to mourn over; sich freuen, to rejoice at; erstaunen, sich wundern, to wonder at; sich erbar-

* An die Angst der Hausfrau denkst du nicht. Sch.

† Ihr seist mit mir zufrieden sein. Sch.

men, to take pity upon; flagen, to complain of; frohlocken, to rejoice at; weinen, to weep over; and others of the same description. Instead of über, the obsolete ob, with the dative or genitive case, occurs sometimes, particularly in poetry*.

Auf, with the accusative case, stands with the verbs warten, to wait for; vertrauen, to confide in; trösten, to give one fair hopes of; verzichten, to renounce; toßen, to bid defiance to; sich verlassen, to rely upon; and with the adjectives stolz, proud of; eifersüchtig, jealous of. The same preposition, with the dative, stands with bestehen, to insist upon; beruhen, to depend upon.

Vor, with the dative case, stands with schützen, to defend against; hüten, to beware of; erschrecken, to be frightened at the sight of; fliehen, to take flight before; bergen, to conceal from; es efelt mir, I have a surfeit of.

Aus stands with bestehen, to consist of; and in or bei with beharren, to persevere in.

c. *Ablative relation.*

§ 181.

All relations of an object conceived as a thing *causing an action, but not completing the notion* of the action, are comprehended in the *ablative relation*, which in German, as in other modern languages, is expressed only by prepositions. The ablative relation is either *real*, e. g. he suffers *from* cold; or *moral*, e. g. he gives alms *from* vanity; or *logical*, e. g. he judges *by* experience (§ 177). This distinction also is pointed out in German by different prepositions.

A real cause, if conceived as *external*, is commonly expressed by von; e. g. von der Hitze, or von einer Speise krank werden, to fall ill by the heat, or from a dish; vom Weine betrunken sein, to be intoxicated by wine; vom Regen naß werden, to be wet by the rain; braun von der Sonne, brown by the sun; von der Sonnenhitze schmelzen, to melt by the heat of the sun†.

* Alle Redlichen beklagen sich ob dieses Landvogts Geize. Sch.
Ihr seid verwundert ob des seltsamen Geräthes. Sch.

† Sterben muß von unsrer Hand jede lebende Seele. Sch.

A real cause, if conceived as *internal*, is expressed by *vor*; e. g. *vor* Durst verschnachten, to languish with thirst; *vor* Hitze schmelzen, to melt with (internal) heat; *vor* Langeweile einschlafen, to fall asleep with ennui; *vor* Kummer vergehen, to perish with grief; *vor* Freude weinen, to weep for joy*. *Vor*, however, is employed also to express an external cause preventing an action; e. g. man kann *vor* dem Nebel nichts sehen, one sees nothing for the fog; man kann *vor* dem Lärm nichts hören, one hears nothing for the noise†.

The preposition *durch* denotes the means by which something is effected, and *aus* the materials from which something is made; e. g. *durch* Thränen rühren, to touch by tears; *durch* Schmeichelei locken, to entice by flattery; *durch* den Handel sich ein Vermögen erwerben, to make a fortune by trade‡; and *aus* Marmor ein Bild machen, to make a marble statue; *aus* Kräutern einen Tranf bereiten, to prepare a potion from herbs; *aus* Hanf ein Seil machen, to make a rope from hemp.

A moral cause or motive, if conceived as internal, is denoted by *aus*; e. g. er singt *aus* Eitelkeit, he sings from vanity; Etwas *aus* Geiz, *aus* Eifersucht thun, to do something from avarice, from jealousy§. An external motive is expressed by *wegen* and *halben* (§ 151); e. g. er geht *des* Processes *wegen* zum Richter, he goes to the judge on account of the lawsuit; er ist *halben* *wegen* verurtheilt worden, he has been called into court for debts. *Wegen*, however, denotes also a real cause preventing an action; e. g. er kann *wegen* *des* lahmen Beines nicht gehen, on account of his lame leg he cannot walk; er konnte ihn *wegen* der vielen Fremden nicht beherbergen, on account of the number of strangers he was not able to lodge him||.

A logical cause, if referred to the internal act of conception and judgement, is denoted by *aus*: if, on the other hand, it is referred to perception merely, it is expressed by *an*; e. g.

* Ich schweige *vor* Erstaunen. Sch.

† Er sieht den Wald *vor* Bäumen nicht. Wieland.

‡ Denkt Ihr, daß sie sich *durch* einen Eid gebunden glauben werden, den wir ihnen durch Gaukelei abgelistet? Sch.

§ Die Königin säumt noch *aus* arger List, nicht *aus* Gefühl der Menschlichkeit. Sch.
Aus Nothwehr thu' ich den harten Schritt. Sch.

|| Eine jede Mahlzeit war ein Fest, das sowohl *wegen* der Kosten als *wegen* der Unbequemlichkeit nicht oft wiederholt werden konnte. Göthe.

Etwas aus Erfahrung, or aus den Zeitungen wissen, to know something by experience, by the newspapers; er urtheilet so aus guten Gründen, he judges so for good reasons; and man kennt den Vogel an den Federn, one knows the bird by his feathers; man sieht an seinen Augen, wie er es meint, one sees by his eyes what he means; man hört an seinem Athmen, daß er schläft, one hears by his breathing that he is asleep*.

There are some particular relations of real, moral, and logical cause, expressed by the prepositions *vermöge*, *kraft*, *laut*, and *zufolge* (§ 151). Conformity to a real, moral, and logical cause, is expressed by *nach*; e. g. es riecht nach Bisam, it smells of musk; das Wasser schmeckt nach Salz, the water tastes of salt; ich habe alles nach Ihren Wünschen gethan, I have done everything according to your wishes; er trinkt nach der Vorschrift des Arztes Wasser, he drinks water by the direction of the physician; er ist nach seiner Sprache ein Franzose, he is a Frenchman to judge by his language; er ist nach der Aussage der Zeugen schuldig, according to the evidence of the witnesses he is guilty. *Nach*, when it implies this logical relation, is frequently placed *after* the case which it governs; e. g. seiner Sprache nach, ihrer Aussage nach. A conditional cause is expressed by *unter*; e. g. unter der Bedingung, with the condition; unter der Voraussetzung, in the supposition; unter solchen Umständen, in these circumstances. *Auf* and *über* denote a cause in expressions like er fiel auf den ersten Schlag, he fell by the first blow; ich habe es auf seinen Rath gethan, I have done it by his advice; and er schlief über dem Lesen ein, he fell asleep over his book; er vergißt das Essen über dem Spielen, the play makes him forget his dinner †.

d. *Accusative relation.*

§ 182.

The *accusative relation* is that of an object conceived as suffering an action, and completing the notion of a transitive verb. This relation is always expressed by the accusative

* Am reinen Glanz will ich die Perle kennen. Sch.

† Ueber 'm Herrscher vergißt er den Diener. Sch.

case; and verbs are known to be transitive from their governing the accusative case. The most part of derivative verbs in general, and in particular all factitive verbs without exception (§ 5, 37), are transitive, and accordingly govern the accusative case; e. g. einen Baum fällen, to fell a tree; das Pferd tränken, to give the horse drink; das Wasser wärmen, to warm the water.

The accusative case is governed also by all verbs compounded with the prefix *be* (§ 60), except *behaben*, to please; *begegnen*, to meet (§ 179); *bestehen*, to insist upon, and to consist of; and *beharren*, to persevere in (§ 180); e. g. den Gefangenen bewachen, to watch the prisoner; einen Verlust beweinen, to bewail a loss.

The relation of measure also is expressed by the accusative case; e. g. er schläft den ganzen Tag, he sleeps the whole day; er geht zwei Meilen, he walks two miles; er wiegt einen Zentner, or er ist einen Zentner schwer, he weighs one hundred weight; drei Jahre alt, three years old (§ 180).

The reflexive pronoun, connected with the reflexive verb (§ 65), stands always in the accusative case; e. g. ich erinnere mich, du schämest dich. The verbs, *sich einbilden*, to imagine; *sich anmaßen*, to usurp; *sich getrauen*, to dare; *sich vornehmen*, to propose; *sich vorstellen*, to conceive; are not properly speaking reflexive verbs (§ 65); they have the pronoun in the dative case.

Those impersonal verbs in which a personal subject is represented as the object, commonly have that object in the accusative; e. g. es friert mich, I am chilled; es schaudert mich, I shudder; es hungert mich, es durstet mich, I am hungry, thirsty; es reuet mich, I repent, &c. (§ 67.) But in the following the dative is employed; e. g. es ahnet mir, my mind forebodes; es beliebt mir, I am pleased; es eßelt mir, I loathe; es grauet mir, I feel a horror; es mangelt, and es gebricht mir, I am in want; es schwindelt mir, I feel giddy; es träumt mir, I dream. Es dünket is used with the dative as well as with the accusative case.

e. *Factitive relation.*

§ 183.

By the *factitive relation* we understand the relation of every object conceived as the *effect* or *purpose* of an action, and which

differs from the accusative relation as that of the *suffering* object. The factitive relation is either *real*, if the object is conceived as a real effect of a real action, e. g. envy makes them *our enemies*, to turn *into stone*;—or *moral*, if the object is conceived as an object of wish or desire, e. g. to beg *for bread*, to strive *after fame*;—or *logical*, if the object is conceived as an effect of the faculties of perception or judgement, i. e. that which a person or thing is *taken for*, *thought*, or *judged to be*, e. g. I found him (to be) *a rascal*, I think him *a fool*. The factitive relation, in the same way as the genitive and accusative relations, for the most part serves to complete the notion of the verb (§ 177), as in the expressions now quoted. The relations of *design* and of *purpose*, on the other hand, which we also comprehend under the factitive relation,—e. g. he plays *for his amusement*, he fights *for his country*,—does not necessarily complete the notion of the verb: being always referred to an act of volition (wish, desire), it is to be considered as a moral relation, though the verb referred to may express a real action.

In German the factitive relation is expressed only in a few instances by the accusative and nominative cases: in all others it is expressed by prepositions.

The *real* factitive relation is commonly expressed by the preposition *zu*; e. g. *der Mensch wird zu Staub*, man turns to dust; *Holz ist zu Stein geworden*, wood has been turned into stone; *Ihr macht mich zu eurem Sklaven*, you make me your slave; *zu einem Baume wachsen*, to grow into a tree; *Einen zum Arzte bilden*, to educate one for the medical profession; *Einen zu seinem Erben einsetzen*, to appoint one one's heir; *Einen zum Pair erheben*, to raise one to the peerage; *reif zur Ernte*, ripe for the harvest*. The same preposition, standing after the adverb of intensity *zu*, too (*nimis* § 138), denotes the same relation; e. g. *er ist zu schwach zur Vertheidigung*, too

* Der Zwang der Zeiten macht mich zu eurem Gegner. Sch.

Dein Vater ist zum Schelm an mir geworden. Sch.

Zum Verräther werde nicht. Sch.

Ihn hat die Kunst zum heitern Tempel ausgeschmückt, wo selbst die Wirklichkeit zur Dichtung wird. Sch.

Denkt Ihr, daß der königliche Name zum Freibrief dienen könne? Sch.

Zu eurer Warnung sollte sie gereichen. Sch.

Was man scheint, hat Jedermann zum Richter. Sch.

weak for his defence; er ist zu spät zum Reisen, it is too late for travelling *.

The verbs *verwandeln*, to change, to turn into; *theilen*, to divide into; *zerlegen*, to dissect, to take to pieces; and others of a similar signification, govern the preposition *in* with the accusative case; e. g. *Wasser in Wein verwandeln*, to convert water into wine; *Etwas in drei Theile theilen*, to divide something into three parts.

Only the verb *werden*, to become, to grow, and *bleiben*, to remain, are used with the nominative case; e. g. *er wird ein Lügner* (and *zum Lügner*), he becomes a liar; *er bleibt ein Kind*, he remains a child †.

The *moral* factitive relation also is commonly expressed by *zu*, when the object wished for is something *to be done*; e. g. *zum Frieden rathen*, or *ermahnen*, to advise, to exhort to make peace; *jemanden zu einer Handlung nöthigen*, *zwingen*, to engage, to force one to an action; *geneigt, bereit zur Versöhnung*, disposed to, ready for reconciliation. The verbs *gebieten*, *befehlen*, to command; *verbieten*, to forbid; *erlauben*, to permit; *versprechen*, *gelehen*, to promise; *wünschen*, to wish; and others of a similar signification, govern the accusative case; e. g. *er gebietet Stillschweigen*, he commands silence; *er erlaubt den Eintritt*, he permits the entrance; *er wünscht den Frieden*, he wishes for peace. When, however, the object is expressed by the supine (see § 184), or by an accessory sentence (see § 193), it assumes the form appropriate to the factitive relation; e. g. *er gebietet zu schweigen*, or *daß man schweige*. The same relation is denoted by *auf* in expressions like *auf etwas Böses denken* or *sinnen*, to meditate some ill design; *auf Etwas rechnen*, to rely upon something (to come); *auf Etwas gefaßt sein*, to be prepared for something; *auf Etwas vorbereiten*, to prepare one for something; *zeit auf eine Arbeit verwenden*, to spend time in a business; *die Ausgaben auf eine bestimmte Summe beschränken*, to limit the expenses to a certain sum ‡.

* Du bist zu stolz zur Demuth, ich zur Lüge. Sch.

† Alles wird Gewehr in ihrer Hand. Sch.

‡ Der Herzog sinnt auf Verrath. Sch.

Ich rechnete auf einen weisen Sohn. Sch.

Auf solche Verschäfst war ich nicht gefaßt. Sch.

When, on the other hand, in the moral relation *a possession wished for* is expressed, the prepositions *um* and *nach* are used. *Um* is taken by the verbs *bitten* and *ersuchen*, to request; *betteln*, to beg; *buhlen*, *werben*, to court, to sue; *spielen*, to play for; *sich bemühen*, to endeavour; and others, which imply request or endeavour; e. g. *um Brod bitten* or *betteln*, to ask for bread; *um die Gunst buhlen* or *werben*, to court for a favour; *um Geld spielen*, to play for money*.

Nach is employed with the verbs *verlangen*, *sich sehnen*, to long for; *streben*, *ringen*, to strive after; *forschen*, *fragen*, to ask, to inquire; and others implying desire; e. g. *nach einem Freunde verlangen*, or *sich sehnen*, to long for a friend; *nach einem Amte streben*, to stand for a place or office; *nach dem Grunde fragen* or *forschen*, to ask for or to inquire into the reason. A *design* or *purpose*, the notion of which does not complete the notion of the verb, if it is conceived merely as a *thing*, is also denoted by *zu*; e. g. *er trägt den Degen zu seiner Sicherheit*, he wears the sword for his security; *er reiset zum Vergnügen*, he travels for pleasure; *er liest zu seiner Belehrung*, he reads for his instruction. When, on the other hand, the relation is to the satisfaction or advantage of *persons*, or of such things as are conceived as persons, it is expressed by *für* (§ 147), or by *um*—*willen* (§ 151); e. g. *er baut Häuser für seine Kinder*, he builds houses for his children; *er fight für das Vaterland*, he fights for his country; *er hat viel für uns gethan*, he has done much for us; and *er entzieht sich Vergnügen um seines Bruders willen*, he refuses himself amusements for the sake of his brother.

The *logical* factitive relation is expressed by the preposition *für*, after the verbs *halten*, to take for; *ausgeben*, to give for; *erklären*, to declare as; *gelten*, to be taken for; *erkennen*, to acknowledge; and some others of a similar signification; e. g. *einen für einen Betrüger halten*, *erklären*, to take or to declare one to be an impostor; *für einen Künstler gelten*, to be considered as an artist; *sich für einen Arzt ausgeben*, to profess

* Ich muß um das Lob der Menge buhlen. Sch.

Lassen wir der Erde Fürsten um die Erde lösen. Sch.

Er ist mein Widerpart, der um ein altes Erbstück mit mir rechtet. Sch.

to be a physician *. The same relation is expressed by the accusative case after the verbs heißen, nennen, and schelten, to call, and by the nominative after the same verbs in the passive voice, and after heißen in the intransitive signification; e. g. Einen einen Thoren heißen, nennen, schelten, to call one a fool; Johann wird der Täufer genannt, John is called the Baptist; Marie heißt die Blutige, Mary is called Bloody.

After the verbs ansehen, to regard; betrachten, to consider; erkennen, to acknowledge; erscheinen, to appear; darstellen, to represent; and some others of a similar signification, the logical relation is expressed by the adverb als (Lat. *tamquam*, French *comme*), which has the signification of a relative adverb (§ 131), and is followed by the accusative case, except after gelten, and after the other verbs in the passive voice, when it takes the nominative; e. g. Einen als einen Freund ansehen, erkennen, to regard, or to acknowledge one as a friend; Einen als einen Betrüger darstellen, to represent one as an impostor †.

The place of the objective factor in the factitive relation is frequently taken by an adjective which is not inflected. Thus we say, Einen reich or arm machen, to make one rich or poor; as we say, Einen zu einem Crösus or zum Bettler machen, to make one a Crösus or a beggar. The logical relation in particular is frequently expressed in this way by the adjective alone, or by the adjective connected with für or als; e. g. Einen glücklich preisen, to esteem one happy; Einen weise nennen, to call one wise; er fühlt sich verjüngt, he feels himself young again; ich habe ihn berauscht gesehen, I have seen him intoxicated; Einen für thöricht (für einen Thoren) halten, to take one to be a fool; ich sehe ihn als wahn sinnig an, I consider him as mad ‡. The present participle, standing after

* Wir hatten's bloß für Lug und Trug. Sch.

Euer Gnaden sind bekannt für einen hohen Kriegesfürsten. Sch.

Wir könnten gelten für ein ganzes Volk. Sch.

† Ich hab Euch stets als Wiedermann erfunden. Sch.

Des Prozesses festliches Gepränge wird als ein kühner Frevel nur erscheinen. Sch.

Daß dich die Guisen nicht als Königin erkennen. Sch.

‡ Gleich heißt Ihr alles schändlich oder würdig, böß oder gut. Sch.

Ich wähnte mich verlassen von aller Welt. Sch.

Ich will mich frei und glücklich träumen. Sch.

Nicht für verloren ach' ich's. Sch.

Bekennet Ihr endlich Euch für überwunden. Sch.

the verbs hören, to hear; sehen, to see; finden, to meet; machen, to make; which in German assume the form of the infinitive, e. g. ich höre ihn sprechen, I hear him speaking (§ 75), is also to be considered as an objective factor in the factitive relation.

Observation 1.—The factitive relation, being the relation of an object *caused by* an action (in the direction *towards*, § 177), differs from the genitive relation, which is the relation of an object *causing* an action (in the direction *from*). But as the moral relation of an object wished for may be conceived also as a motive *causing* an action, the forms of the moral factitive relation, and of the genitive relation, frequently stand one for another. Thus we say, einer Sache harren, vertrösten, sich verlassen, and auf eine Sache harren, vertrösten, sich verlassen, to wait for something, to put trust in something, to depend on something.

The factitive relation differs also from the accusative relation, which is the relation of the *suffering* object. But as the *effect* frequently may be conceived as the *suffering* object, the forms of these relations also are frequently employed one instead of the other; e. g. to beg leave, and um Erlaubniß bitten; den Frieden wünschen, and wish *for* peace. On that account the forms of the factitive relation are taken by the verbal substantives, Begierde nach, Verlangen nach, desire after; Wunsch nach, wish for; Hoffnung zu, hope for; Befehl zu, command of; Erlaubniß zu, permission to (§ 174); though the verbs from which they are derived govern the genitive or accusative case.

The factitive relation,—e. g. in the sentence, they made my brother *president*, they chose my brother *for their president*,—being an *objective* relation to the *verb* (made, chose), also differs from that kind of *attributive* relation in which a substantive is in apposition to another *substantive*; e. g. do you know my brother *the president*? As, however, the object in the factitive relation is frequently identified with the object in the accusative, or with the subject in the nominative case, the forms of the attributive relation also stand frequently for those of the factitive relation; e. g. *creaverunt* or *fecerunt fratrem præsidem*.

Observation 2.—In German the demonstrative adverb so, and the interrogative and relative adverb wie, frequently denote the logical factitive relation; e. g. er nennt sich so, he gives himself *that* name; er heißt so, *that* is his name; er sieht die Sache so (für eine solche) an, he views the matter in this light; wie heißt er? *what* is his name? wie siehst du die Sache an? *what* do you think of the matter? In the same way, als, as, which, like the corresponding *quam* and *quum* in Latin, must be considered as a relative adverb, is used to express the logical factitive relation. The adverb als has the same signification, and denotes that which a person or thing is thought to be, when it is connected with a substantive in apposition; e. g. mein Vetter als der einzige Erbe, my cousin being the only heir: or

when it stands with a substantive expressive of manner; e. g. er stand da als ein müßiger Zuschauer, he stood there as an idle spectator*.

§ 184.

The preposition *zu*, which, as we have seen (§ 183), generally expresses the factitive relation, forms the *Supine* by being united with the infinitive of verbs (§ 75). The supine accordingly serves also to point out a factitive relation, but its use is in general limited to the moral factitive relation, to an action intended or wished for, a purpose or design. Thus we say in German, as in English, ich bitte Sie mir zu folgen, I request you *to* follow me; er strebt Geld zu erlangen, he endeavours *to* get money; er bemüht sich zu gefallen, he is anxious *to* please; es dient, dich zu überzeugen, it serves *to* convince you; geneigt zu scherzen, disposed *to* jest. In the same way the supine follows verbs denoting advice, wish, command, permission, &c., though these verbs otherwise may govern the accusative case (§ 183, Obs. 1); e. g. ich rathe dir zu schweigen, I advise you to be silent; ich hoffe, or ich wünsche, ihn zu sehen, I hope, or I wish to see him; er befahl, or er erlaubte mir, zu bleiben, he ordered, or he permitted, me to stay. When a design or purpose is expressed, the preposition *um* is frequently placed before the supine; e. g. ich komme um dich zu warnen, I come *in order* to warn you; er geht in die Stadt um mit einem Freunde zusammen zu kommen, he goes to town *in order* to meet a friend.

In German, however, the supine is frequently employed instead of the attributive (§ 172), as well as of the objective genitive (§ 180), when it expresses the moral relation of an action. In this way the German supine frequently stands in the place of the English participial nouns with the preposition *of*. We say, Zeit zu arbeiten, time to work; anstatt zu arbeiten, instead of working; das Vergnügen Sie zu sehen, the pleasure of seeing you; die Hoffnung zu siegen, the hope of victory; der Wunsch zu gefallen, the desire to please; er ist froh dich

* Sie fordert es als eine Günst, gewährt, es ihr als eine Strafe. Sch.

Ich komme als Gesandter des Gerichts. Sch.

Sprecht als Gebieter. Sch.

Ich will mein Leben als ein Geschenk aus Euren Händen empfangen. Sch.

wieder zu sehen, he is happy to see you again; er ist müde ihn zu unterhalten, he is tired of entertaining him; er fürchtet sich, dir zu begegnen, he is afraid of meeting you; er schämt sich die Wahrheit zu sagen, he is ashamed of telling the truth.

When the supine follows verbs or adjectives which govern a particular preposition, this preposition is usually placed before the supine, but contracted with the demonstrative pronoun *daß* (§ 125); e. g. er sehnt sich danach, dich zu sehen, he longs *after* seeing you; er besteht darauf eingelassen zu werden, he insists *upon* being admitted; er ist stolz darauf ein Deutscher zu sein, he is proud *of* being a German; er denkt nicht daran zurückzukehren, he does not think *of* returning; es dient dazu dich zu warnen, it serves to warn you.

The accusative relation also is expressed by the supine after the verbs, anfangen, beginnen, to begin; aufhören, to cease; pflegen, to use; unternehmen, to undertake; wagen, to venture; hindern, to prevent one from doing something; and other verbs which denote the performance or non-performance of a real action (*real relation*); e. g. er fängt an zu sprechen, he begins to speak; er hört auf zu athmen, he ceases breathing; er pflegt zu sagen, he is used to say.

The supine, on the other hand, cannot be employed to express the accusative relation after verbs expressing a knowledge or an opinion (*logical relation*), and it is therefore improperly used after erkennen, to acknowledge; bekennen and gestehen, to confess; erzählen and berichten, to report; versichern, to assure; vermuthen, to suppose, &c. After the following verbs only its use is sanctioned by practice: glauben, wähnen, meinen, to think; sich einbilden, to imagine; vorgeben, behaupten, to pretend; scheinen, to appear; e. g. er glaubt, behauptet, gibt vor, die Sache zu kennen, he pretends to know the business.

The difference between the real and the logical relation, the former of which only has generally the supine, is particularly shown in the verbs wissen, vergessen, denken, which have the supine when they refer to an action; e. g. ich weiß ihn zu behandeln, I know how to manage him; ich habe vergessen etwas zu thun, I forgot to do something; ich denke nach London zu gehen, I think of going (intend to go) to London. Whilst, on the other hand, they take the accusative or an accessory

sentence when they express the mere act of the mind, viz. knowing, forgetting, thinking; e. g. *ich weiß daß ich Unrecht habe*, I know that I am in the wrong; *ich hatte vergessen daß ich es ihm versprochen hatte*, I had forgotten my having promised him; *ich denke daß alles recht ist*, I think all is right.

The supine can in no case be employed in German after verbs signifying knowledge or opinion, when these verbs already have an accusative which would be the subject of the supine. The English expressions, *I suppose him to be a fool*, *I believe him to have gone*, *I remember him to have said*, must be translated by the formation of an accessory sentence: *ich vermute, daß er ein Narr ist*, *ich glaube daß er gegangen ist*, &c. The same applies to the verbs *wünschen* and *verlangen*.

The supine also follows the preposition *ohne*, without, which in English is construed with the participial nouns; e. g. *ohne zu wissen*, without knowing.

Observation.—Expressions like, he taught me, or, I did not know what to say, how to speak, where to go, cannot be rendered in the same way in German by the supine: we say, *er lehrte mich*, or *ich mußte nicht, was ich sagen sollte*, *wie ich sprechen sollte*, *wohin ich gehen sollte*.

§ 185.

The proper use of those prepositions by which the relations of cause are expressed being attended with some difficulties, it is thought expedient to subjoin the following general observations on the English prepositions employed to denote the relation of causality, and on the forms corresponding to each of them in German.

The preposition *of* expresses the relation of the objective as well as of the attributive genitive (§ 172, 180), and is commonly rendered in German by the genitive case. In some instances of the attributive relation, however, *of* is rendered by *von* (§ 173); and other prepositions (§ 174) are employed when it stands for the attributive genitive of the object. In the objective genitive relation, *of* is frequently rendered by *von*, *an*, *über*, *auf*, *vor*, and *aus* (§ 180); e. g. to speak *of* (*von*), to remind *of* (*an*), to complain *of* (*über*), proud *of* (*auf*), to be afraid *of* (*vor*), to consist *of* (*aus*). The moral ablative rela-

tion in expressions like, *of my own choice*, is expressed by *aus* (§ 181).

The preposition *to*, if it implies the dative relation (of a person), is generally rendered in German by the dative case (§ 179); e. g. *to offer to a person*: if, on the other hand, it expresses the factitive relation (of a thing), it is rendered by the preposition *zu* (§ 183); e. g. *to force to, to your advantage*. Thus, for instance, we distinguish *der Garten gehört meinem Bruder*, the garden belongs *to* my brother; and *der Garten gehört zu dem Gute*, the garden belongs *to* the farm (makes a part of it).

When the preposition *by* stands with a verb in the passive voice, and denotes the active subject (e. g. *he is recommended by his teacher*), or if it expresses the real cause in the ablative relation (e. g. *ill from the heat*), it is rendered in German by *von* (§ 179, 181). When it denotes a means (e. g. *by force, by imposture*), it is rendered by *durch*; and if it denotes a logical cause, it is rendered by *aus*, *an*, or *nach*; e. g. *to know by (aus) experience, to know one by (an) his voice, to judge of one by (nach) his language* (§ 181).

The preposition *for* in English expresses different kinds of the factitive relation, which in German are distinguished by different prepositions. When *for* denotes the real factitive relation, e. g. *ripe for the harvest, too weak for an undertaking*; or a purpose, e. g. *it is for your good, for that purpose*; it is commonly rendered in German by *zu*. If it expresses the moral factitive relation, e. g. *to ask for bread, to court for love*, it is rendered by *um*; if it denotes a price, e. g. *for ten pounds*, and if it implies for the advantage or satisfaction of a person, e. g. *to intercede, to fight for a person*, it is rendered by *für* (§ 183). Elliptical expressions like, *as for me, as for this question*, are rendered by an accessory sentence; e. g. *was mich betrifft, was diese Frage betrifft*, *as to what concerns me, or this question*. In expressions like, *that is impossible for me, the tailor makes a coat for me*, *for* is rendered either by the dative case or by the preposition *für* (§ 179). *For* is employed in English also to express the ablative relation; in which case it is rendered by prepositions corresponding to this relation; e. g. *to die for (aus) want, to*

weep *for* (vor) joy, he loves her *for* (wegen) her amiable qualities (§ 181).

When *from* expresses the genitive relation (to free *from* fear), it corresponds to the German preposition *von* (§ 180); when it expresses the ablative relation (*from* avarice, *from* want), it is translated by *aus* (§ 181).

With is generally translated by *mit*; it corresponds to *vor* in expressions like, to starve *with* hunger, to languish *with* thirst, to tremble *with* fear (§ 181).

At is rendered by the preposition *über* in expressions like, to be vexed, to be offended, to be angry, to rejoice, to be afflicted, *at* a thing (§ 180): and *on* is rendered by the same German preposition in expressions like, to speak, to preach *on* a subject (§ 180).

Relation of Locality.

§ 186.

When the relation of locality is a relation to the speaker, it is expressed either by the relational adverbs of place (§ 138), e. g. *er wohnt hier*, he lives here; *er geht dorthin*, he goes there; or by prepositions connected with pronouns, e. g. *er steht vor mir*, he stands before me. When, on the other hand, it is a relation to other persons or things, it is in general expressed by prepositions, the proper use of which has been explained in Sect. II. Chap. 7. (on Prepositions). Cases without a preposition denote the relation of locality only in the expressions, *aller Orten* (genitive), in all places; and *er kommt des Weges* (genitive), he comes by that way; and in expressions like, *er geht* or *er wandert den Weg* or *diesen Weg* (accusative), he walks this way.

Relation of Time.

§ 187.

The relation of time refers either to the time which is present to the speaker, and is in that case expressed by the relational adverbs of time (§ 138), e. g. *er wird bald kommen*, he will come soon; *er ist gestern*, or *heute angekommen*, he

arrived yesterday or today: or it refers to the time of another action or event; in which case it is for the most part expressed by prepositions (Sect. II. Chap. 7.); e. g. es friert im Winter, it freezes in winter; er wird vor Ostern, or nach drei Tagen abreisen, he will set out before Easter, or after three days.

When however a point of time (*quando*) is to be expressed, cases may be employed. A point of time is denoted in a definite way by the accusative case, as in English; e. g. er ist diesen Morgen hier gewesen, he has been here this morning; er geht nächsten Montag nach der Stadt, he goes to town next Monday; er ist den ersten Mai geboren, he is born the first of May. A point of time is, on the other hand, expressed in an indefinite way by the genitive case; e. g. er arbeitet des Morgens or Vormittags, schläft Nachmittags und geht Abends or des Abends in's Schauspiel, he works in the morning, in the forenoon, sleeps in the afternoon, and goes to the play in the evening; er geht Sonntags in die Kirche, he goes to church on Sundays; er kam eines Tages zu mir, he came to me one day. Of the same description are the forms, anfangs, at the beginning; heutiges Tages, now-a-days; mittler Weile, in the meanwhile; nächster Tage, one of these days; and some others.

The duration or measure of time (*quandiu*), like the measure of other things, is expressed by the accusative case (§ 182); e. g. er ist den ganzen Tag beschäftigt, he is employed the whole day; er hat hundert Jahre gelebt, he has lived a hundred years.

The relation of time is also expressed by those forms of the participles which we have called Gerunds (§ 140); e. g. in das Zimmer tretend, erblickte ich einen alten Freund, entering the room (when I entered), I beheld an old friend; kaum angekommen reifete er wieder ab, scarcely arrived (when he was arrived), he departed again (see § 189).

Relation of Manner.

§ 188.

The relation of manner is for the most part expressed by notional adverbs of manner, i. e. by adjectives and substan-

tives turned into adverbs; e. g. mündlich berichten, to report orally; absichtlich beleidigen, to offend purposely; geschwind sprechen, to speak quickly; falsch schwören, to swear falsely. Gerunds, i. e. participles used as adverbs, are employed in the same way; e. g. er sprach lächelnd, he spoke smiling; er kam gelaufen, he came running (§ 140)*. The relation of manner, however, is also expressed by the genitive case and by prepositions. The genitive case was more usual in old German (§ 140), and has been retained only in some expressions; e. g. Einen alles Ernstes ermahnen, to admonish one in full earnest; unverrichteter Sache abziehen, to go off without accomplishing one's purpose (*re infecta*); stehenden Fußes, immediately (*stante pede*); glücklicher Weise, fortunately; verstohlener Weise, secretly (by stealth); gerades Weges, straightways; abgeredeter Maßen, in the manner agreed upon; gebührender Maßen, in due manner; and some others (§ 140)†. The relation of manner assumes the form of the factitive relation (§ 183) in expressions like, er ist zum Sterben (tödlich) krank, he is mortally sick; das Bild ist zum Sprechen (sprechend) ähnlich, the picture is a speaking likeness; er ist zum Entsetzen (entsetzlich) häßlich, he is frightfully ugly.

The relation of manner is moreover expressed by the following prepositions:

Manner is denoted by mit in expressions like, er arbeitet mit Lust, he works with pleasure; er tanzt mit Anstand, he dances gracefully; er spricht mit Würde, he speaks with dignity‡. It expresses an instrument; e. g. mit Füßen treten, to tread under foot; mit dem Ball spielen, to play at ball; mit dem Messer schneiden, to cut with a knife; mit Ochsen pflügen, to plough with oxen.

Zu expresses the manner of going from place to place in

* Könnten wir nicht harmlos vergnügliche Tage spinnen, lustig das leichte Leben gewinnen? Sch.

Geschäftig unermüdlich beschißt er sie. Sch.

Sollten wir zu Grunde gehen, weil deine Söhne wüthend sich beschieden? Sch.

† Wirst du's vermögen, ruhigen Gesichtes vor diesen Mann zu treten? Sch.

Hörst du das Hifthorn klingen mächtigen Rufes? Sch.

‡ Hört es mit Gleichmuth an. Sch.

Tragt es mit Ergebung. Sch.

Sprecht mit Gelassenheit. Sch.

Du trittst mit stolzer Willkühr ihr Geschenk mit Füßen. Sch.

expressions like, zu Wasser, zu Lande, zu Fuße, zu Pferde reisen, to travel by water, by land, on foot, on horseback.

The preposition *auf* is used only with the substantive *Weise*, manner, either expressed or understood; e. g. *auf eine neue Weise*, in a new manner; *auf's freundlichste* (*auf die freundlichste Weise*), in the kindest manner; *auf Deutsch*, in German; *auf Englisch*, in English. *An*, in the same way as *auf*, is used in the formation of the superlative degree from adverbs of manner; e. g. *am freundlichsten*, the most kindly (§ 141).

In and *unter* denote manner in expressions like, *im Geiste und in der Wahrheit anbeten*, to worship in spirit and in truth; *Etwas im Zorne thun*, to do something in a fit of passion; *Etwas in Demut, in Geduld ertragen*, to bear with humility and patience*; *Einen unter Thränen bitten*, to entreat one with tears.

§ 189.

The *Gerund* (§ 140) is employed in German, as in English, to express not only the relations of time and manner (§ 187, 188), but also the relations of cause and condition. Thus we say, *durch Deutschland reisend*, *begegnete er manchem alten Bekannten*, travelling through Germany (*time*), he met many old acquaintances †; and *ihm die Hand drückend nahm er Abschied*, shaking his hands (*manner*), he took leave ‡: but we say also, *von allen Freunden verlassen mußte er zu Grunde gehen*, being forsaken by all his friends (*cause*), he must perish §; and *mich an ihn anschließend werde ich siegen, aber getrennt von ihm werde ich unterliegen*, joining him (*condition*) I shall conquer, but separated from him (*condition*) I shall be conquered ||. The use of *gerunds*, however, is

* Soll ich's im Ernst erfüllen müssen? *Sch.*

In Hast und Eile baut der Soldat von Leinwand sich seine leichte Stadt. *Sch.*

† Dieses bei mir denkend, schlief ich ein. *Sch.*

‡ Vertrauend naht sich der Gerechte. *Sch.*

§ Er will stürmend Bahn sich brechen. *Sch.*

§ Der eignen Kraft nicht mehr vertrauend, wandt er sein Herz den dunklen Rünsten zu. *Sch.*

Kein Abbild duldet sie, allein das körperliche Wort verehrend. *Sch.*

|| Entworfen bloß ist's ein gemeiner Frevler, vollführt ist's ein unsterblich Unternehmen. *Sch.*

Einmal entlassen aus dem sichern Winkel des Herzens, hinausgegeben in des Lebens Fremde, gehört die That jenen tückischen Mächten an, die keines Menschen Kunst vertraulich macht. *Sch.*

not so extensive in German as in English; and especially the relations of time, cause, and condition, expressed by the *gerund* in English, are more commonly rendered in German by accessory sentences, or by co-ordinate sentences connected by the copulative conjunction *und*; e. g. *indem er durch Deutschland reisete, da er verlassen war, wenn ich mich anschließe*. Generally the use of such *gerunds* as are compounds with auxiliaries (*having received your letter, being convinced of your affection*), is not received in German, nor can *gerunds* be used in German when they have a subject different from the subject of the sentence; e. g. *my father* losing his health, *we* left the country; *the business* being done, *I* went home. In expressions of that description, the German idiom requires the *gerund* to be turned into an accessory adverbial sentence, in which the particular relation, of time, manner, cause, or condition, is pointed out by its respective conjunctions (see § 197, 198, 199, 201); e. g. *nachdem* (after) *ich Ihren Brief erhalten hatte*, &c.; *als* (when) or *da* (since) *der Vater seine Gesundheit verlor*, &c. In some particular expressions, however, a *gerund* is employed, the subject of which is not the same with the subject of the sentence; e. g. *er hat, diesen Fall ausgenommen, immer redlich gehandelt*, he has always acted honestly, this case excepted; *das Buch kostet, den Einband abgerechnet, fünf Gulden*, this book costs five florins, exclusive of the binding; *er trat, die Hände mit Blut befleckt, in das Zimmer*, he entered the room, his hands stained with blood *. In expressions like, *die Waffen in der Hand naheten sie*, they approached with arms in their hands; *ein Kind auf ihrem Schooße saß sie da*, she sat there with a child upon her knees†; the *gerund* (*habend, having*) is omitted by way of ellipsis.

* In einem Erker standen wir, den Blick stumm in das lde Feld hinausgerichtet. Sch.

Sie singt hinaus in die finstere Nacht, das Auge vom Weinen gerübet. Sch.

Das Haar verwildert lag der Schotte Kurl auf seinem Lager. Sch.

† Die Hand am Schwerte schauen sie sich drohend von beiden Ufern an. Sch.

Da kömmt sie selbst, den Christus in der Hand, die Hoffahrt und die Weltkluft in dem Herzen. Sch.

So muß ich fallen in des Feindes Hand, das nahe Rettungsufer im Gesicht. Sch.

CHAPTER IV.—*Syntax of Compound Sentences.*

§ 190.

It has been already observed, that sentences are compounded by way of subordination (§ 152), when one of them may be considered as standing in the place of a substantive, adjective, or adverb, which is a factor of a combination in the other sentence; e. g. he reported *that the king died* (the death of the king), he was at work *before the sun rose* (early). The sentence which thus takes the place of a factor in the other sentence (*that the king died*, and *before the sun rose*) is termed an *Accessory* sentence, whilst the other sentence to which it belongs (*he reported*, and *he was at work*) is termed a *Principal* sentence. The same sentence, however, e. g. *he reported*, which is a principal sentence with regard to its accessory sentence (*that the king died*), may again be an accessory sentence with regard to another principal sentence; e. g. *it is a fact, that he reported, that the king died*: and an accessory sentence (*that he reported*) may be a principal sentence with regard to another accessory sentence (*that the king died*).

Accessory sentences may consist of any factor of the predicative, attributive, or objective combinations, excepting the predicate.

Accessory sentences are frequently abridged again into a supine (§ 184), having the power of a substantive, or into a gerund (§ 189), having the power of an adverb; e. g. he practises the law *in order to make a fortune*, instead of *for the purpose of making a fortune*; *the tutor very much attached to his pupil*, instead of *who is very much attached*, &c.; *reading the letter he grew pale*, instead of *whilst he read the letter*, &c. Supines, adjectives, participles, and gerunds, which thus stand in the place of an accessory sentence, frequently take a place different from that of other substantives, adjectives, or adverbs, in the construction of a sentence; on which account they are distinguished by the denomination of *abridged sentences*.

Observation.—It has been stated already, and it will still more clearly appear from what follows, that the use of abridged sentences is far less extensive in German than in English.

§ 191.

According to the relation in which accessory sentences stand to the principal sentence, they are either *substantive*, or *adjective*, or *adverbial* sentences. When an accessory sentence forms the subject of the principal sentence, or is equivalent to a substantive in the genitive, accusative, ablative, or factitive relations, it is termed a *substantive* sentence (see § 193): when it is equivalent to an attributive adjective, it is termed an *adjective* sentence (see § 194): or when it stands in the relations of locality, time, or manner, it is termed an *adverbial* sentence (see § 195).

§ 192.

The connection of accessory with principal sentences is expressed by the *subordinative* conjunctions (§ 152). These conjunctions may be considered as formed of two members, viz. a *demonstrative* pronoun, standing in the principal sentence, and a *relative* pronoun, standing in the accessory sentence. Both members still occur in the Latin conjunctions *post ea quam*, *ita ut*, *eo quod*; in the French, *par ce que*; and in the English expressions, I know *that* *which* you mean, *that* tree *which* bears no fruit, he is not *there* *where* you expected him, *when* he commands *then* I must obey. The demonstrative, standing in the principal sentence, generally takes the form corresponding to the relation (of causality, time, manner, &c.) in which the accessory sentence stands to the principal sentence; and the relative, standing in the accessory sentence, being a factor of a combination, either predicative, attributive, or objective, in the accessory sentence, generally takes the form appropriate to this office. In the subordinative connection either the demonstrative or the relative, or even both members of the conjunction, are frequently omitted; e. g. *I know (that) what you mean, the coat (which) I have on, I did not hear of him since (then, when) I left him*: but both of them are always understood; and all subordinative

conjunctions, accordingly, which do not consist of a demonstrative and relative pronoun, e. g. *der—welcher*, he—who; *so—daß*, so—that; *da—wo*, there—where; *dann—wann*, then—when; *wenn—so*, if—then; are to be regarded either as relative pronouns, the demonstrative corresponding to which is understood, e. g. *wer* and *was*, who and what; *wo*, where; *als*, when; *wenn*, if; *ob*, whether; *da*, as (Lat. *quum*); *daß*, that (French *que*):—or they are to be considered as demonstrative pronouns, the relative of which is understood: these are in German generally compounded with a preposition; e. g. *nachdem*, after (that); *indem*, whilst (that); *seitdem*, since (that):—or, lastly, they are merely prepositions, both the demonstrative and relative pronouns being understood; e. g. *ehe*, before; *seit*, since; *weil*, because *.

Observation.—The origin of the subordinative conjunctions, *als*, as (Lat. *quum*, *quam*); *ob*, if, whether; *je*, the (Lat. *quo*); *weil*, because (*quia*); is obscure: but they may nevertheless be regarded as relative adverbs.

Substantive Sentences.

§ 193.

We distinguish the following kinds of substantive-accessory sentences.

First,—those which stand in the place of a supine or abstract substantive. Accessory sentences of this description are frequently employed in German in the room of the English participial noun; and they are always employed when the participial noun cannot be rendered by an infinitive, or by a supine, or by a substantive; e. g. your *flattering* his vanity gives me much pain, *daß* Sie seiner Eitelkeit schmeicheln, that mir sehr leid; I am convinced of his *having betrayed* the secret, ich bin gewiß, *daß* er das Geheimniß verrathen hat. Accessory sentences of this kind are always joined to the principal sentence by *daß* (that), which is distinguished by its orthography from the relative pronoun *daß* in its usual sense; the substantive demonstrative pronoun in the principal sentence being at the same time expressed or understood; e. g. ich bin dessen gewiß,

* Grammatik. § 224.

or ich bin gewiß, daß er ein großes Vermögen besitzt, I am sure of his being in possession of a large fortune*. When a relation of causality is expressed by a preposition, the demonstrative pronoun is commonly contracted with the preposition (§ 125); e. g. Man spricht davon, daß Sie verreisen wollen, they speak of your being about to travel; ich bin stolz darauf, daß Sie mich mit einem Besuche beehren, I am proud of your favouring me with a visit; er hat dadurch sein Vermögen verloren, daß er andern zu viel traute, he has lost his fortune by trusting too much to others †. When the substantive-accessory sentence expresses a quoted assertion, the conjunction daß is for the most part omitted, and then the sentence assumes the construction of a principal sentence. Thus we say, er erzählte, er sei in Italien gewesen, instead of er erzählte, daß er in Italien gewesen sei, he said (that) he had been in Italy ‡. This practice, which is in use in English only after some verbs, e. g. *to think, to say, to wish*, is generally received in German in all quotations, in which the verb is in the conjunctive mood (§ 164). After verbs, however, which imply a *wish, request, or command*, the conjunction daß can be thus omitted only when one of the auxiliary verbs of mood, *mögen, sollen, wollen*, is employed in the accessory sentence; e. g. ich bat, er möge hier bleiben, I requested that he might stay here; er versprach, er wolle kommen, he promised that he would come; er befahl, ich sollte gehen, he ordered that I should go. We say, on the other hand, ich bitte daß du bleibest, ich befehle daß du gehest.

When the accessory sentence is in the factitive relation of design or purpose (§ 183), the conjunction damit or auf daß (in order that) is commonly employed instead of daß; e. g. er spart sein Geld, damit, or auf daß, er im Alter nicht Mangel leide, he is saving of his money in order that he may not be in

* Daß Ihr sie haßt, das macht sie mir nicht schlechter. Sch.

Verordnet ist im englischen Gesetz, daß jeder Angeklagte durch Geschworne von seines gleichen soll gerichtet werden. Sch.

Das alles mahnt mich, daß ich heute von meinem Glücke scheiden muß. Sch.

† Ich kann nicht mein Gewissen damit beschwichtigen daß mein Mund ihn nicht betrogen. Sch.

‡ Das wären die Planeten, sagte mir der Führer, sie regierten das Geschick, drum seien sie als Könige gebildet. Sch.

want in his old age; *sprich deutlich, damit ich dich verstehe*, speak distinctly, in order that I may understand you *.

Secondly;—accessory sentences which correspond to a participle or adjective used substantively. These are connected with the principal sentence by the substantive-relative pronoun (*wer, was*) in the accessory, and by the substantive-demonstrative pronoun (*der, das*), either expressed or understood, in the principal sentence (see § 194); e. g. *wer gesund ist braucht keinen Arzt*, he who is in good health (a healthy person) does not require a physician; *wer lügt, der stiehlt*, he who lies will steal; *ich sage (das) was ich weiß*, I tell that which I know †. Instead of the relative *wer*, we use also *der* (§ 130); e. g. *dem traue ich nicht, der lügt*, I do not trust him who tells lies ‡. When the relation of the accessory sentence is expressed by a preposition, the demonstrative pronoun is never omitted, as in English, nor contracted with the prepositions; e. g. *ich weiß nichts von dem, was du sagst*, I know nothing of what you tell me; *er ist froh über das, was ich ihm gesagt habe*, he is glad of what I told him; *er ist mit dem zufrieden was er hat*, he is satisfied with what he possesses.

Thirdly;—accessory sentences which, though expressing locality, time, or manner, are considered as substantive sentences, on account of their either being the subject itself of the principal sentence, or standing in the relation of causality to the subject; e. g. *wann er kommen wird, wo er wohnen wird, und wie er sich betragen wird, ist ungewiß*, when he will come, where he will live, and how he will conduct himself, is uncertain §. Of the same description are the sentences having the conjunction *ob* (if, whether), which, as an adverb of mood, implies possibility (§ 138); e. g. *ich weiß nicht, ob er kommen wird*, I do not know whether he is to come ||.

* *Damit sie andere Hände nicht erkaufe, bot ich die Meinen an.* Sch.

† *Den schreckt der Berg nicht, wer darauf geboren.* Sch.
Was ihn Euch widrig macht, macht mir ihn werth. Sch.
Läßt mich wissen, was ich zu fürchten habe. Sch.

‡ *Den möcht ich wissen, der der Treueste mir von Allen ist.* Sch.
Ich bin nicht von denen, die mit Worten tapfer sind. Sch.

§ *Du siehst jetzt ein, wie treu ich dir gerathen.* Sch.
Wie ich die Stuart hasse, weiß die Welt. Sch.

|| *Es muß sich erklären, ob ich den Freund, ob ich den Vater soll entbehren.* Sch.
Ihr sollt erklären, ob Ihr euren Herrn verrathen wollt, oder tren ihm dienen. Sch.

Adjective Sentences.

§ 194.

Adjective accessory sentences are to be considered as attributive adjectives or participles enlarged into sentences; e. g. a person *who is ignorant of his own language* (a man ignorant, &c.); the trees *which I planted* (the trees planted by me). Adjective-sentences are connected with the principal sentence by a demonstrative adjective-pronoun, expressed or understood in the principal sentence; e. g. *der, dieser, jener, derjenige, solcher* (§ 127); and by a relative adjective-pronoun (§ 130) in the accessory sentence. The relative pronoun is never omitted in German, as is frequently the case in English; e. g. *the trees you have planted grow very well*: it agrees in number and gender with the substantive referred to in the principal sentence, and takes, as in English, the form (case or preposition) corresponding to its office in the accessory sentence. The demonstrative *solcher* is in German always followed by the adjective relative pronoun *welcher* or *der*, and not by a relative adverb like the English *as*; e. g. *solche Thiere die or welche im Wasser leben*, such animals *as* live in the water.

When the substantive-pronoun *wer* or *der*, or *was*, stands in an accessory sentence, it corresponds to an adjective used substantively (§ 193). Accessory sentences of this description stand frequently in apposition to a whole sentence; in which case they always have the relative *was*, either alone, or contracted with a preposition (*worüber, woran, &c.* § 125); e. g. *Er hat sein Vermögen verloren, was ich nicht wußte*, he has lost his fortune, which I did not know; *er hat eine Anstellung erhalten, worüber ich mich sehr gewundert habe*, he has got a commission, at which I have been quite surprised. When accessory sentences of this description stand in apposition to the first or second personal pronoun, the same pronoun is also expressed in the accessory sentence, and the verb agrees with it; e. g. *Ich, der ich der Schwächere bin, kann dir nicht widersprechen*, I who am the weaker part cannot oppose you; *Ihr, die ihr Gelehrte seid müßt das wissen*, you who are scholars must know that.

Adjective-sentences are frequently abridged (§ 190); e. g. ein Glück, mit niemanden getheilt, ist eigentlich kein Glück, a happiness shared with nobody is no true happiness; ein kleines Gut mit viel Mühe erworben, macht mehr Freude, als große Schätze, ohne unser Verdienst vom Zufall uns geschenkt, a small fortune acquired by much labour gives greater pleasure, than great treasures bestowed on us by chance without our exertion. All attributive adjectives (and participles), if standing after the substantive referred to, must in German be considered as abridged adjective-sentences. We admit, however, of abridged adjective-sentences only when the substantive referred to stands in either the nominative or the accusative case. When therefore, in English, an adjective or participle stands after the substantive referred to in another case,—e. g. *he is tired of a business liable to various chances*,—it is in German either placed before the substantive, e. g. er ist eines, mannigfaltigen Zufällen unterworfenen, Geschäftes überdrüssig; or turned into a complete accessory sentence, e. g. er ist eines Geschäftes, welches mannigfaltigen Zufällen unterworfen ist, überdrüssig.

Adverbial Sentences.

§ 195.

Those accessory sentences which stand in the relation of place, time, or manner, we term *adverbial*. They are connected with the principal sentence by an adverbial form of a demonstrative pronoun in the principal sentence, and by an adverbial form of a relative pronoun in the accessory sentence; both being either expressed or understood. Accessory *causal, conditional, concessive, and comparative* sentences, being also connected with their principal sentences by the adverbial forms of pronouns, they, together with the accessory sentences of place, time, and manner, are classed among the adverbial sentences. These different kinds of adverbial sentences are, however, distinguished by different forms of the connecting pronouns.

§ 196.

Adverbial sentences of *place* have the relative adverb *wo*, *woher*, or *wohin*, the demonstrative *da* being either expressed or understood in the principal sentence; e. g. *Er ist nicht da, wo du ihn zu finden hofftest*, or *wohin er kommen sollte*, he is not there, where you hoped to meet him, or where he was to come*.

§ 197.

The relation of *time* is in English most frequently expressed by the gerund; but the use of that form being very limited in German (§ 187), its place is for the most part supplied by adverbial sentences, in which the particular kinds of the relation are distinguished with great accuracy by means of different conjunctions. In expressing *co-existence* with another event, a point of time is indicated by *da*, *als*, *wann*, or *wenn*, when; *wie*, as; and *indem*, whilst: *duration* of time is signified by *indess*, *indessen*, *weil*, whilst; and *während*, during. A relation to a *preceding* event is expressed by *nachdem*, after, and *seit*, since: and a relation to a *subsequent* event by *ehe*, before, and *bis*, until. All these conjunctions have for their corresponding demonstrative in the principal sentence the adverb *da*, used as an adverb of time (§ 139), and either expressed or understood, except *wann*, which may also take *dann*, and *indem*, *indess*, and *indessen* (Lat. *dum*, *cum*), in that time, which do not require any corresponding demonstrative: because, though appearing to belong to the accessory sentence, they are themselves, properly speaking, the demonstrative belonging to the principal sentence.

The conjunction *wann*, instead of which *wenn* is commonly used, denotes the relation of time in the most indefinite way, like *when* in English; e. g. *wenn ihn einer fragte, so gab er keine Antwort*, when any body asked him, he would not give an answer; *Ich werde schreiben wenn ich Zeit habe*, I shall write when I have time†. Its signification being thus indefinite,

* Sie wird gerichtet, wo sie frevelte. Sch.

Nicht wo die goldene Ceres lacht, wo das Eisen wächst in der Berge Schacht, da entspringen der Erde Gebieter. Sch.

† Sonst, wenn der Vater auszog, da war ein Freuen, wenn er wiederkam. Sch.
Weiß ich ob diese Wände den Verrath einlassen, wenn ich schlafe. Sch.

Zeit ist's die Unfälle zu beweinen, wenn sie wirklich erscheinen. Sch.

wenn is employed also to denote the relation of condition (see § 199). *Wenn* cannot be employed, like the English *when*, to express the relation of a definite event in the past time: for that purpose we have recourse to the conjunctions *da* and *als*; e. g. *Ich war schon an der Arbeit, da or als du noch schliefest*, I was already at work when you were still sleeping*: and the conjunction *da* being now generally employed to denote the relation of causality (see § 198), the relation of time is more commonly expressed by *als*.

Indem and *wie* (as) are employed when an event is to be represented as quite simultaneous with another; e. g. *indem or wie ich ihn erblickte, war er auch wieder verschwunden*, the moment I perceived him he disappeared; *der Schnee schmilzt, indem er fällt*, the snow melts the moment it falls †.

Indeß and *indessen* (in the mean time that, whilst) refer to a duration of time in an indefinite way; e. g. *indeß or indessen er die Zeitung liest, will ich einen Brief schreiben*, whilst he reads the papers I shall write a letter ‡. A correspondence in the duration of time is denoted by *während* (during, while), the use of *weil* as a conjunction of time being rather antiquated; e. g. *während ich schreibe, magst du lesen*, whilst I write you may read §. *Indem* is used also in a causal (see § 198), and *indeß* in an adversative signification (§ 155); e. g. *er lebt im Ueberfluß, indeß Bessere darben*, he lives in luxury whilst better people are in want.

Nachdem, after; *ehe*, before; *bis*, till, until; and *seit* or *seitdem*, since; are used in the same way as the corresponding conjunctions in English. *Seit* and *seitdem*, however, are not, like *since*, used in a causal signification.

* So speiste sie zu Sterlyn ihren Gatten, da sie aus Gold mit ihrem Bußten trank. *Sch.*

Da ihr die That geschehen ließt, war't ihr nicht mehr ihr selbst. *Sch.*

Ich zählte zwanzig Jahre, als mich die unbezwingliche Lust hinaustrieb auf das feste Land. *Sch.*

Wie wurde mir, als ich in's Innere der Kirche trat. *Sch.*

Als ich den Vater fand, beraubt und blind, da weint' ich nicht. *Sch.*

† Wie er erwacht in seliger Lust, da spielen die Wasser ihm um die Brust. *Sch.*

Wie er winkt mit dem Finger, auf thut sich der weite Zwinger. *Sch.*

‡ Indem du insgeheim auf meine Mörderhülfe hoffest, so werden wir zur Rettung Frist gewinnen. *Sch.*

§ Das Eisen muß geschmiedet werden, weil es glüht. *Sch.*

§ 198.

Causal adverbial sentences are connected with the principal sentence by the relative adverb *da*, *as*, and by *weil*, because (which is equivalent to a relative adverb); both corresponding to the demonstrative adverb *so*, either expressed or understood, in the principal sentence.

Weil (most) generally denotes a moral cause or motive; e. g. *Man hat ihn nicht gern, weil er anmaßend ist*, he is not liked because he is presumptuous*. It is however used also to express a real cause; e. g. *er kann nicht gehen, weil er ein Bein gebrochen hat*, he cannot walk because he has broken his leg.

Da denotes a logical cause (reason), from which an inference is drawn, and which in English is expressed either by the conjunctions *as* and *since*, or by the gerund; e. g. *da die Bäume erfroren sind, muß es sehr kalt sein*, *as* or *since* the trees are frozen, it must be very cold; *da der Herr mir als ein Amerikaner vorgestellt wurde, redete ich ihn in englischer Sprache an*, the gentleman *being* introduced to me as an American, I addressed him in English†.

A cause may also be expressed in an indefinite way by *indem*; e. g. *indem er hoch spielte, verlor er viel Geld*, by playing high he lost much money; *er bleibt zu Hause, indem er einen Besuch erwartet*, he stays at home, as he expects a visit.

The demonstrative adverb *so* is also omitted when the principal sentence stands before the accessory sentence: and even when the principal follows after the accessory sentence, *so* is commonly expressed only when perspicuity requires it; the accessory sentence being of great extent.

§ 199.

Conditional adverbial sentences are connected with the principal sentence by the relative adverb *wenn* (if), with the

* *Weil ich ihm getraut bis heut, will ich auch heut ihm trauen. Sch.*

Ihr wart den Beiden nie gewogen, weil ich sie liebe. Sch.

Weil sich die Fürsten gütlich besprechen, wollen auch wir Worte des Friedens wechseln. Sch.

† *Warum noch länger abgesondert leben, da wir vereint Jeder reicher werden. Sch.*

Was steht wir hier noch feindlich geschieden, da die Fürsten sich liebevoll umfassen? Sch.

demonstrative adverb *so* expressed or understood in the principal sentence; e. g. *wenn du heute sparst, so wirst du morgen keinen Mangel leiden*, if you save today, you will not suffer want tomorrow. Instead of *wenn*, the conjunctions *so*, *wo*, *wofern*, *falls* (in the case), are also used; e. g. *so du mich schlägst, schlage ich dich wieder*, if you beat me, I will beat you again: *wo möglich*, if possible; *wofern er sich weigert, zwingen wir ihn*, if he refuses we shall force him; *falls er fragt, antworte nicht*, in case he should ask, give him no answer *.

The relative adverb being omitted, conditional sentences frequently assume the form of interrogative sentences; e. g. *ist er schuldig, so muß er gestraft werden*, if he is guilty he must be punished; *wäre ich an seiner Stelle gewesen, so hätte ich anders gehandelt*, had I been in his place I should have acted otherwise. This mode of expression, which in English is admissible only when the verb of the accessory sentence is in the conditional mood, is in German applicable to all conditional sentences †. The corresponding demonstrative adverb *so* is expressed only when the principal sentence stands after the accessory sentence, and perspicuity requires it: it must always be expressed when a conditional sentence has assumed the form of an interrogative sentence.

§ 200.

Concessive adverbial sentences have the conjunctions *ob*-*schon*, *obwol*, *obgleich*, *wenn schon*, *wenn gleich*, *wenn auch* (though), compounded with the relative adverb *ob*, *wenn* (if), the demonstrative adverb *so* being expressed or understood in the principal sentence; e. g. *obschon* or *obgleich* *er gesund ist, so kann er doch keine Anstrengungen ertragen*, though he is in good health, he is not able to undergo fatigue; *obschon* *er sehr reich ist, lebt er sehr mäßig*, though he is very rich he is very frugal. The conjunctions *wenn schon*, *wenn gleich*, and *wenn auch*, are commonly separated by the subject of the sentence, or another word taking the place of the subject; e. g. *wenn er auch, or*

* *So du Gerechtigkeit vom Himmel hoffst, so erzeig' sie uns.* Sch.

Es müßt' geschehn, wo möglich, ehe sie dir zuvorkommen. Sch.

† *Treiben sie dich gegen mich zu ziehn, so sagst du Ja, und bleibst stehen.* Sch.

Gleich einem Träumenden, als wäre nur der Leib zugegen. Sch.

wenn er gleich gelehrt ist, so ist er doch kein guter Lehrer, though he be a learned man, he is not a good teacher. The concessive, like the conditional sentences (§ 199), frequently assume the form of interrogative sentences, the relative *ob* or *wenn* being omitted; e. g. *ist er gleich gesund, so kann er doch keine Anstrengungen ertragen; ist er auch gelehrt, &c.**

In expressions like, *wer er auch sei, so fürchte ich ihn nicht*, whoever he be, I do not fear him; *was du auch sagen magst, so ändere ich doch meine Meinung nicht*, whatever you say, I shall not change my opinion; *wie er die Sache angreifen mag, so wird es nicht gelingen*, in whatever way he will manage the business, he will not succeed;—the concessive accessory sentence assumes the form of an indirect question.

The demonstrative *so*, after concessive sentences, is expressed only when the principal stands after the accessory sentence; and it is never omitted when the accessory sentence has the form of a direct or indirect question.

§ 201.

Adverbial accessory sentences of manner, having the conjunction *indem* (§ 197), are very frequently employed in German in the place of the English *gerund*; e. g. *er nahm Abschied, indem er mir auf's freundlichste die Hand drückte*, he took leave of me, shaking hands with me most kindly; *er sah ihn an, indem er in seinen Blicken seinen Verdruss ausdrückte*, he looked at him, expressing his anger by his looks.

When manner is expressed in the form of the factitive relation (§ 188), the English language makes use of the supine (§ 76) with the adverbs *so as*; e. g. *he speaks so as to be understood by everybody; he acts so as to deserve contempt*. In German the supine cannot be employed in this manner, and is supplied by an accessory sentence with the relative pronoun *daß*, corresponding to the demonstrative adverb of manner *so* in the principal sentence; e. g. *er spricht so, daß ihn Jeder-mann verstehen kann; er handelt so, daß er Verachtung verdient*.

* *Strömt es mir gleich nicht so herab vom Munde; schlägt in der Brust kein milder-reues Herz. Sch.*

Comparative adverbial sentences of manner have the relative adverb of manner *wie* (as), the demonstrative adverb of manner *so*; *so* (Lat. *ita*), being expressed or understood in the principal sentence; e. g. *er spricht so, wie er denkt*, he speaks as he thinks; *er handelt nicht so, wie er spricht*, he does not act as he speaks. When mere possibility is expressed by an adverbial sentence, it has the conjunction *als wenn*, or *als ob* (as if), followed by the verb in the conjunctive or conditional mood; e. g. *er thut, als ob er unschuldig sei*, he behaves as if he were innocent; *er sieht aus als ob er krank wäre*, he looks as if he were ill. Adverbial sentences of this description may also assume the form of interrogative sentences, the conjunctions *wenn* and *ob* being omitted; e. g. *als sei er unschuldig, als wäre er krank*.

§ 202.

From the comparative sentences of *manner* we have to distinguish the comparative sentences of *intensity*, of which there are different forms in German as in English.

Intensity may in the first place be expressed, like manner (§ 201), in the form of the factitive relation by an accessory sentence with *so* and *daß*; e. g. *es war so kalt, daß die Flüsse zugefroren*, it was *so* cold *that* the rivers were frozen; *er ist so schwach, daß er nicht sprechen kann*, he is *so* weak *as* not to be able to speak.

Equality of intensity is expressed by the relative adverb *als* (as) in the accessory, and by the demonstrative adverb of intensity *so*, as (Lat. *tam*), in the principal sentence; e. g. *er ist so reich, als er wünscht zu sein*, he is *as* rich *as* he wishes to be; *er tanzt so oft, als er Lust hat*, he dances *as* often *as* he likes. *Als* is in these expressions often omitted; e. g. *er tanzt, so oft (als) er kann*, he dances as often as he can; *komm, sobald (als) du kannst*, come as soon as you can. When the accessory is placed before the principal sentence, *so* may also be used as a relative adverb; e. g. *so lange er reiset, ist er gesund*, *as long as* he travels he is in good health*.

That relation of equal intensity which in English is expressed by two comparatives connected with *the* (*the more the better*),

* *So hoch er stand, so tief und schmachlich sei sein Fall. Sch.*

is rendered in German by *je* in the accessory, and *desto* in the principal sentence; the former being equivalent to a relative, and the latter to a demonstrative adverb; e. g. *je länger ich mit ihm bekannt bin, desto lieber wird er mir*, *the longer I am acquainted with him, the more I like him*; *je mehr er hat, desto mehr will er*, *the more he possesses, the more he wishes to possess*. Instead of *desto* we sometimes employ also *je*; e. g. *je mehr er hat, je mehr will er haben*; *je länger, je lieber*, *the longer the better*.

That form of the factitive relation which follows the adverb of intensity *zu*, too,—e. g. *er ist zu schwach zu seiner Vertheidigung*, *he is too weak for his defence* (§ 183),—being turned in German into an accessory sentence, takes the relative adverb of intensity *als*, as (Lat. *quam*), and the verb stands in the conjunctive or conditional mood; e. g. *er ist zu schwach als daß er seine Vertheidigung versuche* or *versuchte*, *he is too weak to attempt his defence*; *er ist zu ehrlich als daß er eine Unwahrheit sagen sollte*, *he is too honest to tell a lie*. The accessory sentence of this description may, however, be again abridged into a supine, as in English; but then *als* is omitted, and the preposition *um* is frequently placed before the supine (§ 184); e. g. *zu schwach seine Vertheidigung zu versuchen*; *zu redlich um eine Unwahrheit zu reden*.

After the comparative degree also the relative adverb of intensity *als* (Lat. *quam*) is employed, which corresponds to the English *than*; e. g. *er macht größeren Aufwand, als er machen sollte*, *he goes to greater expense than he ought to do*; *er ist flüger als sein Bruder (ist)*, *he is wiser than his brother (is)*.

Observation 1.—In English, *as* is employed as an adverb of manner (§ 201): in German, manner is commonly expressed by *wie* (§ 201), and intensity by *als* (§ 202).

Observation 2.—The adverb of intensity *als* (as, than) is to be distinguished from the conjunction *als* standing after a negation. The latter answers to the English *but*; e. g. *Ich habe keinen gesehen als dich*, *I have seen none but you*; *er hat nichts als Wasser getrunken*, *he drank nothing but water*.

CHAPTER V.—*Of Construction.*

§ 203.

CONSTRUCTION, i. e. the proper arrangement of words in a sentence, serves, like accentuation (§ 15), to point out the unity of the different combinations (§ 15) in a sentence, and the subordination of their constituent factors. In accentuation this is obtained by the degree of emphasis laid on the words: in construction, on the other hand, by the order in which the words follow one another. Thus in saying, *our friend likes the hills of his country*, the unity of the combinations *our friend*, *friend likes*, *likes the hills*, and *the hills of his country*, is expressed by placing the constituent factors of each combination contiguous to each other; and at the same time the subordination of the factors is pointed out by the principal factors in each combination following the subordinate factor; viz. *friend* standing after *our*, *likes* after *friend*, *the hills* after *likes*, &c. For in arranging the factors of a combination, language in general adopts the rule of *placing the principal after the subordinate factor*. This rule, however, is modified in each language; and in German especially it is liable to exceptions, which will be explained.

§ 204.

We distinguish the constructions of the predicative, attributive, and objective combinations. In each of these the arrangement of the factors depends on their subordination, which has been explained in treating of the different combinations (§ 157, 168, 175). That construction which is in agreement with the natural subordination of the factors, we term the common or *direct* construction; e. g. *das Kind ist verzogen*, the child is spoiled; *das Ende der Welt*, the end of the world; *er trinkt Wein*, he drinks wine. In these combinations, construction as well as accentuation points out the words *verzogen*, *Welt*, *Wein*, as the principal factors. When, on the other hand, the speaker wishes to point out emphatically any one factor of a combination, not only the accentuation but also

the construction of the combination is changed, and we say, *verzogen ist das Kind, der Welt Ende, Wein trinkt er*; by means of which change the words *verzogen, Ende, Wein*, are pointed out emphatically. A construction thus altered receives the name of an *inverted* construction.

In the expressions, *verzogen ist das Kind, Wein trinkt er*, the word which is already the principal factor is at the same time pointed out emphatically by the inverted construction: in *der Welt Ende*, on the contrary, the word which usually is the subordinate factor (*Ende*), is pointed out emphatically, and made the principal factor; consequently the subordination of the factors is itself inverted.

Observation 1.—It is evident that the inverted construction has been originally employed for no other purpose than that of emphasis: it has, however, come to be frequently used for the sake of perspicuity as well as of eurythmy.

Observation 2.—In general the use of inverted constructions in a language is in direct proportion to its power of inflection; for when the relations of words are clearly pointed out by inflection, perspicuity is not impaired by inversion; which must be the case, on the other hand, when the relations of words are not expressed by inflection, and are known only by the places which they occupy in common construction. The use of the inverted construction is therefore more extensive in German than in English. Thus, e.g. the sentence, *der Jäger hat einen Wolf getödtet*, the huntsman has killed a wolf, in German admits of the inverted construction (*den Wolf hat der Jäger getödtet*), which in English would entirely change the sense, and is therefore not admissible.

I. Construction of the Predicative Combination.

§ 205.

The predicative combination consists of two factors, viz. the subject and the predicate: the predicate however being frequently compounded of two words, viz. an adjective or participial form of a verb, and a relational verb (this tree *is old*, the boy *has played*, the boy *may play*); or, in the case of a separable compound verb, of the separable component and the inflected verb (the traveller *sets out*),—we distinguish in the construction of the predicative combination three places, viz. that of the *subject*, that of the *copula* (i. e. the relational verb, and the inflected component of separable compound

verbs), and that of the *predicate* proper, i. e. the predicative adjective, the participial forms, and the separable component of separable compound verbs; e. g.—

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Copula.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
the flower	is	beautiful,
die Blume	ist	schön.
you	have	heard,
du	hast	gehört.
the boy	can	speak,
der Knabe	kann	sprechen.
the stranger	sets	out,
der Fremde	reiset	ab.

In order to comprehend all particulars of German construction in a few simple rules, we apply the same threefold arrangement to those predicative combinations also, in which the predicate is expressed by a simple verb unconnected with a relational verb, and in which consequently the inflected verb, like the inflected relational verbs, occupies the place of the *copula*. In this case the place of the predicate is left vacant; but we shall see (§ 210) that objective factors are, nevertheless, always referred to this vacant place of the predicate. Thus,

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Copula.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
the boy	speaks,	0
der Knabe	spricht.	0
the stranger	departs,	0
der Fremde	verreiset.	0

In German the *inflected* part of the verb alone can take the place of the copula: when therefore the relational verb, or a separable compound verb, is in a compound form, the inflected part takes the place of the copula, and the participial form is placed after the predicate; e. g.—

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Copula.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	
die Blume	ist	schön	gewesen.
du	wirst	gehört	haben.
das Kind	hat	sprechen	können.
der Fremde	ist	ab-	gereiset.

This construction, however, applies in German only to principal sentences: accessory sentences (§ 190) are distinguished by a peculiar form of construction; and we have to treat, therefore, of the construction of the predicative combination, 1) in *principal* sentences, and 2) in *accessory* sentences.

1). Construction of Principal Sentences.

§ 206.

The construction of principal sentences is either *direct* or *inverted* (§ 204). In the direct construction of principal sentences, *the subject stands first, the copula next, and the predicate last*. In this respect, therefore, the German does not differ from the English construction, except in the arrangement of the compound forms of the relational verbs, and of the participial forms of separable compound verbs (§ 205). Thus we say,—

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Copula.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
das Kind the child	ist is	krank, ill.
das Kind the child	hat has	geschlafen, slept.
das Kind the child	kann can	sprechen, speak.
das Kind the child	schläft, sleeps.	0 0
der Fremde the stranger	reiset sets	ab, out.
das Kind (the child	ist has	krank gewesen, ill been.)
das Kind (the child	ist has	gestraft worden, punished been.)
das Kind (the child	muß must	gestraft werden, punished be.)
der Fremde (the stranger	ist is	ab-gereiset, out set.)

§ 207.

In the *inverted* construction of principal sentences, the subject is placed after the copula: this construction is always employed when the subject, or the copula, or the predicate, or any objective factor (§ 176), is inverted, i. e. removed from its common place in order to be pointed out emphatically (§ 204). In English this construction is retained only in interrogative sentences (where *is the man?*), in imperative sentences (*speak ye* to him), in quotations (yes, *said he*), in some other expressions, e. g. there *is a house*, never *did he* speak, not a word *did he* say; and particularly in poetical language.

When the *subject* is rendered emphatic by means of the inverted construction, it is placed after the copula, and the indefinite pronoun *es* (§ 122) takes its place before the copula; e. g. *es ist ein Wolf geschossen worden*, a wolf (it was a wolf which) was killed; *es ist ein Komet erschienen*, a comet has made its appearance; *es zittern die Muthigsten*, the most courageous tremble*.

The copula is inverted and stands before the subject in German, as in English, in imperative sentences, and in those interrogative sentences in which the assertion itself is the subject of the question; e. g. *Sprechen Sie*, speak (ye)! *Sei* (du) ruhig, be quiet; and *schläft er?* does he sleep? *ist er krank?* is he ill†? It has been already stated (§ 70, *Obs.*), that German interrogative and imperative sentences do not admit of an auxiliary verb like the English *to do*. When a wish is expressed by the auxiliary verb of mood, *mögen*, in the conjunctive or conditional mood, the inverted construction is also employed in German as in English; e. g. *mögen Sie glücklich sein!* may you be happy! *möchte er noch leben!* might he be still alive! By inverting the copula, and thus laying a particular stress upon it, a particular relation of mood is always

* *Es leben Götter.* Sch.

Es zieht die Freude ein. Sch.

Es sind schwere Verbrechen begangen worden. Sch.

† *Bist du der Gebieter?* Sch.

Wißt du Ernst machen? Sch.

expressed (§ 70, *Obs.*). The same construction is employed in those cases in which the English idiom makes use of a question in the negative form, in order to assert a fact with unusual force. In German the conjunction *doch* is inserted in the question, the negative form not being employed; e. g. Is he not your relation? *ist er doch Ihr Verwandter?* did he not promise it? *hat er es doch versprochen? **

When the predicate or any objective factor is rendered emphatic by being inverted, it is placed before the copula, which in that case is followed by the subject; e. g. *flüchtig ist die Zeit*, time is fleeting; *ein Heuchler ist er*, he is a hypocrite; *gesündigt hat er, und gestraft muß er werden*, he has sinned, and he must be punished †; and *Wein hat er nicht getrunken*, wine he did not drink; *Schmeichlern traue ich nicht*, flatterers I do not trust; *nach London reiset er*, to London he goes; *bei Tage schläft er, und Nachts arbeitet er*, in the day-time he sleeps, and in the night-time he works; *tapfer hat er gefochten*, bravely he fought ‡.

Whatever part of the principal sentence be inverted, the relative position of the subject and of the copula always remains the same, as will be seen from the following :

Inverted :		Copula.	Subject.	Predicate.
Subject.	Es	ist	ein Komet	erschienen.
Copula.		ist	er	krank?
Predicate.	Flüchtig	ist	die Zeit.	
Objective factor.	Wein	hat	er	getrunken.

Of all objective factors (§ 176), adverbs are most frequently rendered emphatic by inversion in German, as they frequently are also in English; e. g. *hier steht er*, here he stands; *jetzt*

* *Ist Leben doch des Lebens höchstes Gut! Sch.*

War't ihr doch sonst so froh! Sch.

Kenn ich sie doch kaum! Sch.

Hat die Königin doch nichts voraus vor dem gemeinen Bürgerweibe! Sch.

† *Ernst ist das Leben, heiter ist die Kunst. Sch.*

Verstreut sind die Gefährten. Sch.

Sterben müssen alle. Sch.

‡ *Die Sprache redet Englands Feind. Sch.*

Maria Stuart hat kein Glücklicher beschützt. Sch.

Viele alte Wappenhücher schlug ich nach. Sch.

Nur von Edlen kann das Edle stammen. Sch.

Hier ist Gewalt, drinnen ist der Mord. Sch.

kommt er, now he comes; vielleicht kennt er mich, perhaps he knows me. The conjunctive adverbs, e. g. dennoch, jedoch, zwar, indessen, gleichwol, daher, demnach, folglich (§ 153), are in point of construction treated like other adverbs; and when they stand at the beginning of the sentence, the subject always takes its place after the copula; e. g. zwar ist er reich, jedoch ist er nicht geachtet, daher ist er mißvergnügt, he is rich indeed, but still he is not respected, he therefore is not happy. The co-ordinative conjunctions proper (und, oder, allein, sondern, and denn), on the other hand, though always standing at the beginning of the sentence, do not affect the position of the subject; e. g. allein er wird nicht geachtet, sondern er ist verachtet, but he is not respected, but despised; denn er ist gemein, for he is vulgar. The conjunctions auch, also, aber, nämlich, and entweder, may, like conjunctive adverbs, stand at the beginning of the sentence as well as before the predicate: auch and also, if thus placed at the beginning, also affect the position of the subject; but aber and nämlich have not the same effect; e. g. er hat keine Stelle, auch hat er kein Vermögen allein er hat guten Muth, nämlich er hat Aussichten auf eine reiche Erbschaft, he has no place, nor has he any fortune, therefore he is not very happy, but he is of good cheer, for he has expectations of a rich inheritance. After entweder, standing at the beginning of the sentence, the subject may be placed either before or after the copula; e. g. entweder er kommt, or entweder kommt er zu mir, oder ich gehe zu ihm, either he comes to me or I shall go to him. It is to be observed, however, that when an adverb of quantity, e. g. auch, nur, kaum, noch, sogar, schon (§ 138), stands not in an objective relation to the predicate, but in an attributive relation to the subject, its being placed at the beginning of the sentence does not affect the position of the subject. We say accordingly, auch or nur der Bruder war da, the brother too, or the brother alone, was there; but auch war der Bruder da, the brother was also there; kaum eine Stunde war vergangen, an hour had scarcely elapsed; and kaum war eine Stunde vergangen, scarcely had an hour elapsed; schon drei sind gestorben, noch einer ist übrig, already three of them are dead, only one is left; and schon sind drei gestorben und noch einer ist krank, already three of them are dead,

and still one is sick. Some adverbs, as *freilich*, *doch*, *jedoch*, *indessen*, *nun*, *wahrlich*, may be employed in an elliptical way, in the place of a whole sentence; in which case they do not, as usually, affect the construction of the following sentence; e. g. *freilich*, or *wahrlich*, *er ist sehr alt*, to be sure he is very old; *doch*, or *jedoch*, or *indessen*, *ich will es überlegen*, however, I shall reflect upon it.

In the inverted construction of the principal sentence, the subject commonly stands immediately after the copula. When, however, the subject is to be emphatically pointed out, it may be placed after one or more objective factors, according to its importance compared with that of these factors; e. g. *Es ist vor drei Tagen in unsrer Nachbarschaft ein Wolf geschossen worden*, a wolf was killed in our neighbourhood three days ago. The subject, if pointed out emphatically, admits of being thus placed behind an objective factor in accessory sentences also, which otherwise do not admit of the inverted construction; e. g. *da vor drei Tagen in unsrer Nachbarschaft ein Wolf geschossen worden ist*. We cannot in German place at the beginning of the sentence two or more objective factors at the same time, as is frequently done in English; e. g. *In general however it is true*, *im Allgemeinen ist es jedoch war*; *In his excuse indeed it may be said*, *zu seiner Entschuldigung kann zwar gesagt werden*.

2.) *Construction of Accessory Sentences.*

§ 208.

Accessory sentences are in German distinguished from principal sentences by a peculiar form of construction. The subject stands first, being preceded by the conjunction, which serves to connect the accessory with the principal sentence (except when the subject itself, being a relative pronoun, performs the office of a conjunction); the predicate takes the second, and the copula the last place (§ 190). This construction accordingly is adopted by all sentences connected with a principal sentence by means of subordinative conjunctions, i. e. relative pronouns, or relative adverbs expressed or understood, or conjunctions equivalent to relative pronouns, e. g. *ob*, *ehe*, *seit*, *bis*, *weil*, &c. (§ 192.) Thus,

		<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Copula.</i>
Ein Kind, (a child		welches which	krank ill	ist, is.)
Ein Kind, (a child	dessen whose	Vater father	krank ill	ist, is.)
Ein Kind a child		welches which		schläft. sleeps.
Ich weiß (I know	daß that	das Kind the child	geschlafen slept	hat, has.)
	Wenn (when	das Kind the child	sprechen speak	kann, can.)
	Ehe (before	der Fremde the stranger	ab- out	reiset, sets.)
	Weil (because	das Kind the child	krank gewesen ill been	ist, has.)
	Nachdem (after	der Fremde the stranger	abgereiset set out	war, had.)
	Da (as	das Kind the child	gestraft werden punished be	muß, must.)

When the relative adverbs of intensity, *so*, *wie*, and *je* (§ 202), are connected with an adjective or other adverb, it follows them immediately, and is accordingly placed before the subject, as in English; e. g. *so* or *wie* *flug er auch sei*, however prudent he be; *so oft ich ihn sehe*, as often as I see him; *je größer er ist*, the greater he is.

When in an accessory sentence a relational verb, or another verb connected with an infinitive or a supine, stands in a compound tense, eurythmy commonly requires the inflected relational verb to be placed before the predicate (§ 17); e. g. *wenn ich das hätte verhindern können*, if I might have prevented that; *nachdem ich ihn hatte kommen hören*, after I had heard him coming *. For the same purpose the verbs *sein* and *haben*,

* Kann ich vergessen wie's hätte kommen können? Sch.

Was du mir künftig magst zu hinterbringen haben, sprich es nie mit *Enthen* aus. Sch.

if used as auxiliary verbs, are sometimes altogether omitted in accessory sentences; e. g. wenn ich ihm einen guten Rath gegeben (habe), if I have given him good advice; weil er oft spazieren gegangen (ist), because he has often taken a walk *.

II. Construction of the Attributive Combination.

§ 209.

In the attributive combination the attributive *substantives* commonly follow the substantive referred to, as in English; e. g. der Sohn des Königs, the son of the king; der Lauf der Sonne, the course of the sun; ein Mann von Ehre, a man of honour; ein Ring von Golde, a ring of gold; mein Vetter in London, my cousin in London. Attributive *adjectives*, on the other hand, generally precede the substantive referred to, even though they be enlarged into an objective combination; e. g. mein Vater, my father; ein altes Haus, an old house; der an meinen Vater geschriebene Brief, the letter written to my father; der um die Erziehung seiner Kinder besorgte Vater, the father anxious for the education of his children. An adjective or participle is placed after the substantive referred to, only when it is the predicate of an abridged adjective-sentence (§ 194), and therefore not inflected; e. g. der Vater, besorgt um die Erziehung seiner Kinder, instead of der besorgt ist; der Arzt, den Tod seines Kranken befürchtend, the physician fearing the death of his patient†. It has been already stated (§ 194), that such expressions are admissible only when the substantive referred to is in the nominative or accusative case.

The attributive combination, having for its attributive factor a substantive in the genitive case, may be inverted by placing the substantive referred to after the genitive case: by this means the substantive referred to is emphatically pointed out;

* Ich verlor nicht alles, da solcher Freund im Unglück mir geblieben (ist). Sch.

Mir kam die Kunde zu, daß ihr meinem Oheim übergeben worden (war). Sch.

Was war mein Dank dafür, daß ich der Völker Fluch auf mich gebürdet (hatte), diesen Krieg, der nur ihn groß gemacht (hatte), die Fürsten zahlen lassen (hatte)? Sch.

† Eine heil'ge Eiche steht daneben, durch vieler Wunder Segenskraft berühmt. Sch.
Hell klingt von allen Thürmen das Geläut, des klutigen Tages frohe Vesper schla-
gend. Sch.

e. g. bey Tages Anbruch, at the break of day; des Tages Last und Arbeit, the labour and toil of the day; der Welt Ende, the end of the world; des Landes Wohlfahrt, the welfare of the country*. In this position the substantive referred to commonly receives the principal accent, which is otherwise laid upon the attributive genitive (§ 168)†. When the attributive adjective is to be pointed out emphatically, it is either turned into an adjective-sentence, and placed after the substantive referred to, or it is used substantively, and also, by way of apposition, placed after the substantive referred to; e. g. ein Führer, der blind ist, instead of ein blinder Führer, a blind guide; and die Mutter, die sorgsame, instead of die sorgsame Mutter, the careful mother (§ 171).

Observation.—Allein, alone; selbst, self; and genug, enough; commonly stand after the substantive or pronoun referred to, as in English; e. g. Gott allein, God alone; der Vater selbst, the father himself; Geld genug, money enough. In the same way alle, all, stands frequently after the substantive referred to; e. g. ich habe die Bücher alle gelesen, I have read the whole of the books.

III. Construction of the Objective Combination.

§ 210.

In the objective combination the objective factor stands before the predicate, or, if the place of the predicate has been left vacant, before that vacant place (§ 205). Thus we say in the direct construction of the principal sentence:—

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Copula.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
Er (he	ist is	seinem Freunde to his friend	treu, faithful.)
Er (he	hat has	Wasser water	getrunken, drunk.)

* Des Lebens Kengste—er wirft sie weg. Sch.

Ihr nennt euch fremd in Englands Reichsgefehen; in Englands Unglück seit ihr wohl bewandert. Sch.

† Von euch ertrag ich viel; ich ehre euer Alter; den Uebermuth des Jünglings trag ich nicht; spart mir den Anblick seiner rauhen Sitten. Sch.

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Copula.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
Er	schreibt	einen Brief,	ab,
he	copies	a letter.	0
Er	schreibt	einen Brief,	0
he	writes	a letter.	0

In the inverted construction of the principal sentence:—

	<i>Copula.</i>	<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
	Ist	er	seinem Freunde	treu?
	(is	he	to his friend	faithful?)
Niemals	hat	er	Wasser	getrunken,
(never	has	he	water	drunk.)
Jetzt	schreibt	er	einen Brief	ab,
(now	copies	he	a letter.)	0
Vielleicht	schreibt	er	einen Brief,	0
(perhaps	writes	he	a letter.)	0
Treu	ist	er	seinem Freunde,	0
(faithful	is	he	to his friend.)	0

And in the construction of accessory sentences:—

	<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Copula.</i>
Wenn	er	seinem Freunde	treu	ist,
(if	he	to his friend	faithful	is.)
Weil	er	Wasser	getrunken	hat,
(because	he	water	drunk	has.)
Daß	er	den Brief	ab-	schreibt,
(that	he	the letter	0	copies.)
Ob	er	den Brief	0	schreibt,
(whether	he	the letter	0	writes.)

When there are two or more objective factors in different relations to the same predicate, they are arranged according to their degrees of subordination. This subordination in general depends on the greater or less importance of the different factors, resulting both from the signification of the words by themselves, and from the different kinds of objective relation

in which they stand to the predicate. Thus it may in general be remarked, that a relational word is in general subordinate to a notional word, a factor in the relation of place and time to one in the relation of causality, an accidental to a supplementary factor (§ 177), a factor in the relation of person to one in the relation of a thing, &c. This subordination is, moreover, always expressed by a subordination of accentuation; the *principal* objective factor consequently,—i. e. that objective factor which is of the greatest importance in the objective combination, and (the predicate being the principal constituent of the sentence) in the whole sentence also,—has the principal accent in the objective combination, and in the whole sentence; whilst the subordinate factors are also subordinate in point of accentuation to the principal factor and to each other.

In general the principal objective factor immediately precedes the predicative factor, and the subordinate factor precedes the principal, or that other factor to which it is subordinate. Notional words in particular stand after relational words; e. g. *ich habe ihn in der Stadt gesehen*, I have seen him in town; *er wird bald in die Stadt ziehen*, he soon will remove to town. The relation of causality stands after the relations of place and time; e. g. *er hat in der Stadt einen Freund angetroffen*, he has met a friend in town; *er hat vor drei Tagen einen Brief erhalten*, he received a letter three days ago: the supplementary factor follows that which is not supplementary; e. g. *er hat aus Geiz Wasser getrunken*, he has drunk water from avarice; *er hat zu seinem Vergnügen ein Pferd gekauft*, he has bought a horse for his pleasure: the case expressive of a thing after the case expressive of a person; e. g. *er hat dem Knaben ein Buch geschenkt*, he has given a book to the boy; *er hat den Richter der Partheylichkeit beschuldigt*, he has accused the judge of partiality: the relation of place after that of time; e. g. *er ist vor drei Tagen in der Stadt angekommen*, he arrived in town three days ago: adverbs of manner commonly precede the supplementary objective factor, but follow all other objective factors; e. g. *Ich habe dem Fremden freundlich die Hand gedrückt*, I have kindly shaken hands with the stranger; *er hat redlich die Wahrheit gesagt*, he has honestly told me

the truth. The position of adverbs of manner, however, depends in particular on their modifying either the notion of the verb exclusively, or that of the verb taken together with one or more other factors; and it is accordingly placed either immediately before the predicate, or before the factor constituent of the modified notion. Thus we say on the one hand, *er hat die Sache besser verstanden*, he has better understood the business; *ich habe den Gegenstand aufmerksamer betrachtet*, I have more attentively considered the subject; *er hat sein Glück mit Mäßigung genossen*, he has enjoyed his good fortune with moderation: and on the other hand, *er ist langsam durch die Stadt gegangen*, he slowly walked through the town; *er hat unglücklicher Weise die Sache nicht verstanden*, he unfortunately did not understand the business; *ich habe absichtlich die Sache nicht untersucht*, I have intentionally not investigated the matter; *er hat laut an die Thür geklopft*, he gave a loud knock at the door; *er hat sehr mäßig Wein getrunken*, he took wine very moderately.

A verb sometimes assumes a new signification, in consequence of a supplementary objective factor (§ 177) being joined to it. In the following phrases,—*Einen für einen Betrüger halten* or *ansehen*, to take one to be an impostor; *Einen zum Bettler machen*, to make one a beggar; *Einen Lügen strafen*, to give one the lie; *Gefahr laufen*, to run a risk; *Einem Gehör geben*, to give one a hearing; and some others,—this objective factor cannot be subordinated to any other factor, even by way of inversion. The same applies to all compound expressions for simple notions; e. g. *zu Hilfe kommen*, to assist; *um Rath fragen*, to ask advice (consult); *zu Grunde gehen*, to perish; *zu Grunde richten*, to ruin; *in's Werk setzen*, to execute; *zu Stande bringen*, to fulfil; *im Zaume halten*, to restrain; *still stehen*, to stop; *fest halten*, to take hold of, &c. (§ 175); which, in point of construction, may be considered as separable compound verbs, because the objective factor, like a separable component, takes the place of the predicate, whilst the verb either takes the place of the copula, or stands behind the objective factor, which has the place of the predicate, according as it is either inflected or in a participial form (§ 205); e. g. *er richtet seinen Bruder zu Grunde*, and *er hat seinen*

Bruder zu Grunde gerichtet; er fragt seinen Freund um Rath, and er will seinen Freund um Rath fragen.

When two or more relational words are in an objective relation to the same verb, pronouns are placed before other kinds of relational words; e. g. *ich habe ihn gestern gesehn*, I saw him yesterday; *er wird mich bald besuchen*, he will soon visit me. Of pronouns, again, the personal pronoun stands before the demonstrative, and *es* generally precedes all other pronouns; e. g. *er hat mir das erzählt*, he told me that; *er hat ihn dort gesehn*, he has seen him there; *er hat es ihm erzählt*, he has told it to him. Of personal pronouns, the one in the accusative is commonly placed before that in the dative case; e. g. *ich werde dich ihm vorstellen*, I shall introduce you to him. The reflexive pronoun precedes all other pronouns, and frequently even *es*; e. g. *er schämt sich deiner*, he is ashamed of you; *ich erinnere mich seiner*, I remember him; *er läßt sich's gefallen*, he submits to it. In the inverted construction of the principal sentence (§ 207), the personal, and especially the reflexive pronoun, stands before the subject, except when the subject is also expressed by a personal pronoun. We say, *da fragte mich mein Freund*, then my friend asked me; *es freuen sich die Kinder*, the children rejoice: but on the other hand, *da fragte er mich*; *Jetzt freuen sie sich*. The same applies to the construction of accessory sentences; e. g. *wenn dich der Bruder fragt*; *wenn sich die Kinder freuen*.

The relational adverbs of mood, *nicht*, *ja*, *doch*, *zwar*, *etwa*, *wol*, *vielleicht*, *gern* (§ 138), are placed immediately before the predicate (or its vacant place), when the relation of mood expressed by them (§ 8) applies to the notion of the verb; e. g. *er hat ihm das Pferd nicht or ja or vielleicht geschenkt*, and *er schenkt ihm das Pferd nicht or ja or vielleicht*, he has not (indeed, perhaps) given him the horse, &c.; *ich hätte ihm die Nachricht gern verschwiegen*, I should have liked to conceal the intelligence from him. But when the relation of mood applies to one of the other factors, the adverb stands immediately before the factor referred to; e. g. *er hat nicht or ja or vielleicht ihm das Pferd geschenkt*, it is not (indeed, perhaps) to him that he has given the horse; *er hat ihm nicht or ja or vielleicht ein Pferd geschenkt*, he has not (indeed,

perhaps) given a horse to him; *ich hätte gern ihm* or *ich hätte ihm gern diese Nachricht verschwiegen*, from him I should have liked to conceal this intelligence, or, I should have liked to conceal this intelligence from him. When however the relation of mood applies indefinitely to the whole of the predicate, the adverb of mood is commonly placed after personal pronouns, but before all other objective factors; e. g. *er hat ihm vielleicht* or *wol* or *zwar ein Pferd geschenkt*; *er hat vielleicht* or *wol* or *zwar seinem Sohne ein Pferd geschenkt*.

The relational adverbs of time, *schon* and *noch* (§ 138), if referred to other adverbs of time or adverbial expressions, may be placed either before or after them; e. g. *schon heute* and *heute schon*, not later than today; *noch heute* and *heute noch*, this very day. The same applies to *sogar* referred to any other word; e. g. *sogar der Vater*, and *der Vater sogar*, even the father. The adversative conjunctions, *aber*, *jedoch*, and *indessen*, also are frequently placed immediately after the word to which they more particularly refer; e. g. *der Sohn schwieg, der Vater aber (jedoch) sprach*, the son was silent, but the father spoke.

Observation.—In the arrangement of the objective combination, the German differs materially from the English construction. In German the objective always stands before the predicative factor, whilst in English the reverse is generally the case. The German arrangement of two or more objective factors also in the same sentence is almost the reverse of that received in English; the principal objective factor always standing after the subordinate, whilst in English the principal generally precedes the subordinate factor, except in the case of personal pronouns and of some other relational words.

In English, moreover, adverbs are very generally placed between the subject and copula; e. g. *he constantly alarmed us, we carefully avoided him*. In German such adverbs either take their place before the predicate, or they are put at the head of the sentence, which in consequence is inverted.

§ 211.

The construction of the objective combination is inverted in three different ways.

The *predicate*, which commonly is the subordinate factor in the objective combination (§ 175), may be pointed out

emphatically, so as to assume the importance of the principal factor; and then, if standing in a principal sentence, it is commonly placed at the head of the sentence; e. g. *Gebüßt hat er seine Thorheit*, he has atoned for his folly * (§ 207).

The objective factor, or when there are two or more such the principal of them, though it is already the principal factor of the combination, may be pointed out still more emphatically, either by being placed also at the head of the sentence, in principal sentences, e. g. *seinen eignen Sohn hat er dem Gerichte übergeben*, he has surrendered his own son to judgment (§ 207); or, on the contrary, by being thrown at the end of the sentence, i. e. behind the predicate in a principal, and behind the copula in an accessory sentence; e. g. *er hat vergessen alle seine Leiden*, he has forgotten all his sufferings; *nachdem er lange geschmachtet hatte in Mangel und Noth*, after he had languished a long time in want and suffering †.

When a subordinate objective factor is to be pointed out emphatically, it takes the place of the principal objective factor immediately before the predicate; e. g. *er hat viel Geld ohne viel Mühe erworben*, he has made much money, and that without much trouble; *er besucht das Theater jeden Abend*, every evening he goes to the theatre; *ich habe absichtlich die Nachricht ihm verschwiegen*, I have intentionally concealed the news from him.

The subordinate factor may be pointed out still more emphatically by being placed, like the principal objective factor, either at the head of the sentence, or after the predicate, or in accessory sentences after the copula.

An objective factor belonging to an attributive adjective or participle stands before that adjective or participle; e. g. *der auf seine Siege stolze Krieger*, the warrior proud of his victories; *das in drei Schlachten geschlagene Heer*, the army defeated in three battles. When, however, the attributive adjective or participle in the form of an abridged adjective-

* *Beistehen sollten sie mir in meinen Plänen.* Sch.

† *Ich habe still geschwiegen zu allen schweren Thaten.* Sch.

Ich habe lange gehofft auf diesen Tag. Sch.

Daß sich Herz und Auge weide, an dem wohlgelungenen Bild. Sch.

Es freue sich, wer da athmet im rosigen Licht und begehre nimmer zu schauen, was die Götter bedecken mit Nacht und Grauen. Sch.

sentence stands after the substantive referred to (§ 194), the objective factor may be placed also after the adjective or participle, by which means it is pointed out emphatically; e. g. *der Krieger stolz auf seine Siege, daß Heer, geschlagen in drei Schlachten.*

IV. *Construction of Compound Sentences.*

§ 212.

All accessory sentences standing in places and having the power of factors in a principal sentence (§ 190), ought in general to occupy the places of those factors in the principal sentence for which they stand; viz. substantive-sentences that of the subject or objective factor, adjective-sentences that of the attributive factor, and adverbial sentences that of the adverb. Perspicuity as well as eurythmy, however, frequently require another position of accessory sentences, the particulars of which will appear from the following observations.

Substantive-sentences expressing the subject of the principal sentence (§ 191, 193) frequently retain in German the place of the subject at the head of the principal sentence; e. g. *daß er heute schon ankommen werde, ist nicht wahrscheinlich*, it is not probable that he will arrive today; *daß er seinen Fehler erkennt, ist sehr gut*, it is very well that he acknowledges his fault. Substantive-sentences of this description, however, may also stand after the principal sentence; in which case the indefinite pronoun *es* occupies the place of the subject, as in English; e. g. *es ist nicht wahrscheinlich, daß er heute, &c.*; *es ist sehr gut, daß er, &c.* The latter position is more common, and always preferred when an emphasis is laid on the substantive-sentence.

Substantive-sentences in the relation of causality may (§ 191) in the same way either occupy the place of the objective factor for which they stand, or be placed after the principal sentence; e. g. *ich bin darüber, daß er genesen ist, sehr froh*, or, *ich bin darüber sehr froh, daß er genesen ist*, I am very happy at his being recovered. When, however, the demonstrative pronoun (e. g. *darüber*) is not expressed in the connexion of the accessory sentence, the relative *daß* thus standing alone, the accessory

is commonly placed after the principal sentence; e. g. *ich bin sehr froh, daß er genesen ist*. When the demonstrative pronoun is expressed, and the accessory nevertheless follows after the principal sentence, the demonstrative pronoun retains the place in the principal sentence, otherwise occupied by the accessory sentence; e. g. *er hat seinem Freunde dadurch großen Schaden gethan, daß er sich in seine Angelegenheiten gemischt hat*, he has done great injury to his friend by interfering in his affairs.

Substantive-sentences in an attributive relation are commonly placed immediately after the substantive referred to; e. g. *ich habe die Hoffnung, daß er wieder genesen werde, schon vor zwei Monaten aufgegeben*, I have some months ago given up the hope of his recovery. When however the substantive referred to is the principal objective factor, and therefore immediately precedes the predicate, the accessory may be made to follow the principal sentence; e. g. *ich habe schon vor zwei Monaten die Hoffnung aufgegeben, daß er, &c.*

A substantive-sentence in an objective relation may, like a simple objective factor, be placed at the head of the principal sentence by way of inversion (§ 211); in consequence of which the subject of the principal sentence is also placed after the copula; e. g. *daß er krank sei glaube ich nicht*, his illness I do not believe. The connecting demonstrative pronoun in that case commonly stands before the substantive-sentence; e. g. *davon, daß er verreisen will, weiß ich nichts*, of his intending to travel I know nothing: it may however also stand after the substantive-sentence; e. g. *daß er verreisen will, davon weiß ich nichts*.

Supines are, in the construction of the sentence, considered as abridged substantive-sentences (§ 190): all particulars accordingly observed on the position of substantive-sentences also apply to supines. Thus we say, *er hat, um den Homer lesen zu können, Griechisch gelernt*, or, *er hat Griechisch gelernt um den Homer lesen zu können*, or lastly, *um den Homer lesen zu können hat er Griechisch gelernt*, he has learned Greek in order to be able to read Homer; *er hat die Gelegenheit mit dem Arzte zu sprechen verfehlt*, and *er hat die Gelegenheit verfehlt mit dem Arzte zu sprechen*, he has missed the opportunity of speaking to

the physician. The more common practice, however, is to place the supine at the end of the principal sentence; and this position is preferred especially when one or more objective factors are referred to the supine; e. g. *weil er sich geweigert hat, zur gehörigen Zeit seine Schuld abzutragen, ist er gezwungen worden, sich darüber vor dem Gerichte zu verantworten*, because he has refused to pay his debt at the proper time, he has been forced to justify himself before the court.

Adjective-sentences commonly stand after the substantive referred to, as in English. Those adjective-sentences, however, which refer to an objective factor immediately preceding the predicate, are placed behind the whole principal sentence, when they are of great extent, or have a peculiar emphasis laid upon them; e. g. *ich habe vor drei Tagen den Fremden gesehen der uns vor drei Jahren auf dem Lande besucht hat*, I three days ago saw the stranger, who visited us in the country three years ago. This position of the adjective-sentence is absolutely necessary, when the predicate of the principal sentence is subordinate in point of accentuation to the principal factors of both the adjective and the principal sentence. We could not say, for instance, *er geht einen Vertrag, den er nicht halten kann, ein*, he makes a treaty which he cannot keep; *er sieht mit Bewunderung den Mann, der so vieles gethan hat, an*, he looks with admiration at the man who has done so much.

Adverbial sentences may be placed either before the predicate, like the adverbial expression for which they stand, or after the principal sentence; e. g. *er hat mir, nachdem er das Geld gezahlt hatte, einen Empfangschein gegeben*, having counted the money he gave me a receipt; *ich will, wenn du es verlangst, hier bleiben*, if you desire it I shall stay here; *er will, weil er krank ist, Bäder gebrauchen*, being ill he wishes to bathe; and, *er hat mir einen Empfangschein gegeben nachdem er, &c.*; *ich will hier bleiben, wenn du, &c.*; *er will Bäder gebrauchen weil er, &c.* It is more usual, however, to place the adverbial before the principal sentence by way of inversion, in which construction the subject of the principal

sentence is always placed after the copula ; e. g. nachdem er das Geld gezahlt hatte, gab er mir einen Empfangschein ; wenn du es verlangst, will ich bleiben ; weil er krank ist, gebraucht er Bäder.

Observation.—It has been stated (§ 210, *Obs.*) that adverbs cannot in German, as in English, be placed between the subject and copula. This remark applies to adverbial sentences also, which in English frequently occupy the same place ; e. g. My father, *being very tired*, sat down ; my brother, *all the arrangements being made*, set off.

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beißen, biegen, bind-
 en, brenn-en, denk-en,
 dring-en, fallen, find-
 en, flieg-en, geb-en,
 gönn-en, grab-en, kenn-
 en, lauf-en, mög-en,
 reit-en, seh-en, schieß-
 en, schlag-en, schneid-
 en, schreib-en, sprech-
 en, thu-en, trau-en,
 trink-en, wach-en, zieh-
 en.

1. Biß, Zug, Band, Bund, Junctung,
 Fall, Fund, Flug, Grab, Laut, 6. Bäum-
 Schlag, Schnitt, Spruch, Trau, h. 8. Ge-
 2. Bissen, Garten, Gipfel, Sechtschaft, 1. Schick-
 Kummer. 3. Bucht, Brunst, ig, flüssig,
 Gift, Grube, Gruft, Gunst, znechtisch,
 Macht, Sicht, Schlacht, Sprach, furchtsam,
 Wache, Zucht. 4. Gut, Scham, schriftlich,
 Wahl. 5. flüß, gleich, groß, ich, beweg-
 schön, schwach, stark, treu, wa-
 eitel, eben. last, wahr-
 30. fällen,
 lte, Größe,
 chtsamkeit.

III. Secondary Substantives formed by the Affixes *er* (§ 38),

Obs. I. The following words have a differer

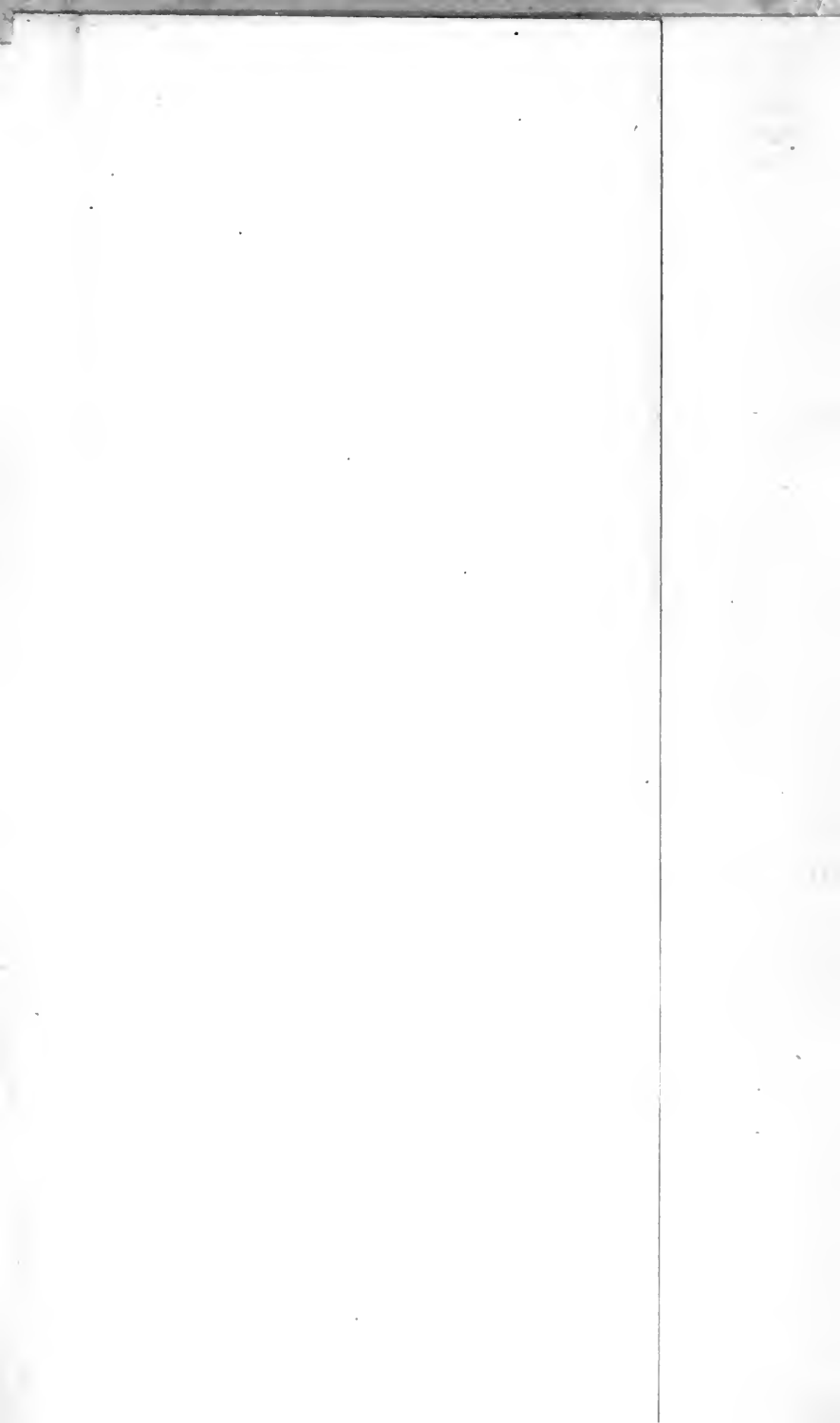
Band,	masc.	<i>volume,</i>	neut.	<i>ba</i>
Bund,	—	<i>alliance,</i>	—	<i>bu</i>
Chor,	—	<i>choir,</i>	—	<i>ch</i>
Inhalt,	—	<i>contents,</i>	—	<i>sal</i>
Schiff,	—	<i>saliva, foam,</i>	—	<i>po</i>
Harz,	—	<i>Harz forest,</i>	—	<i>re</i>
Lohn,	—	<i>reward,</i>	—	<i>wa</i>

Obs. II. Foreign Substantives retain the ge

Masculine: Altar, Dialekt, Diphthong, Körper
 Feminine: Bibel, Kanzel, Orgel, Hymne, and
 Neuter: Abenteuer, Eche, Fenster, Fieber, Ge.

Obs. III. Compound Substantives have the

Masculine: Wittwech, Weichen.
 Feminine: Sanftmuth, Großmuth, Schwerm



3. iſt P ſind &c. anc. f. ſei ſeien &c. anc. f. P. ſeid .bt

Of the Substantive (§ 106, 107).

ancient form. mod. f.		
Sing.	Nom.	—
	Gen.	—eſ
	Dat.	—
	Acc.	—
} en		
Plur.	Nom.	—
	Gen.	—e (er)
	Dat.	—e (er)
	Acc.	—en (ern)
} en		
Modification of vowel		
—e (er)		

Of the Adjective (§ 116). 9.)

ancient form.			modern	
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	M.	F.
—er	—e	—eſ	—e	—e
—eſ (en)	—er	—eſ (en)	—en	—en
—em	—er	—em	—en	—en
—en	—e	—eſ	—en	—e
} en			} en	
			—e	—
			—er	—
			—en	—
			—e	—

Obs. The vowel is *not* modified in

fun
falſ
fad
flac
freh

beginnen	nehmen	rechnen	werfen
be- } fehlen	rinnen	stehlen	gewinnen
emp- }	schelten	sterben	

Werden has Imperf. wurde, instead of the antiquated ward.
The Conditional of helfen, sterben, verderben, werken, werden,
and werfen, has ii; that of beginnen, befehlen, empfehlen,
bersten, gelten, besinnen, gerinnen, schelten, spinnen, stehlen,
has ö; that of schwimmen has ä or ö.

The Vowel is long in the Imperfect of brechen, kommen,
sprechen, stehen, treffen, erschrecken; it is short in the Past
Participle of nehmen.

Obs. When Verbs of the First Conjugation have the Secondary vowel e, ä, or a
third pers. Sing. Pres. Indic. as well as in the Sing. Imperative: except in bewegen,
erwägen, wehen. The termination e of the Sing. Imperative is dropped in that case.

neoen, 1pru
Participle.

d.	i, e
bitten	d
essen	c.
fressen	d

The Vow
sigen, verge,
Part. geseß,

brennen	...	
bringen	...	
denken	...	
dürfen	...	da
können	...	fa
mögen	...	ma
müssen	...	ma
sollen	...	sol
thuen	...	
wissen	...	we
wollen	...	wil

Act	Chor	Kaplan
Altar	Choral	Kardinal
Bischof	Kanal	Klester

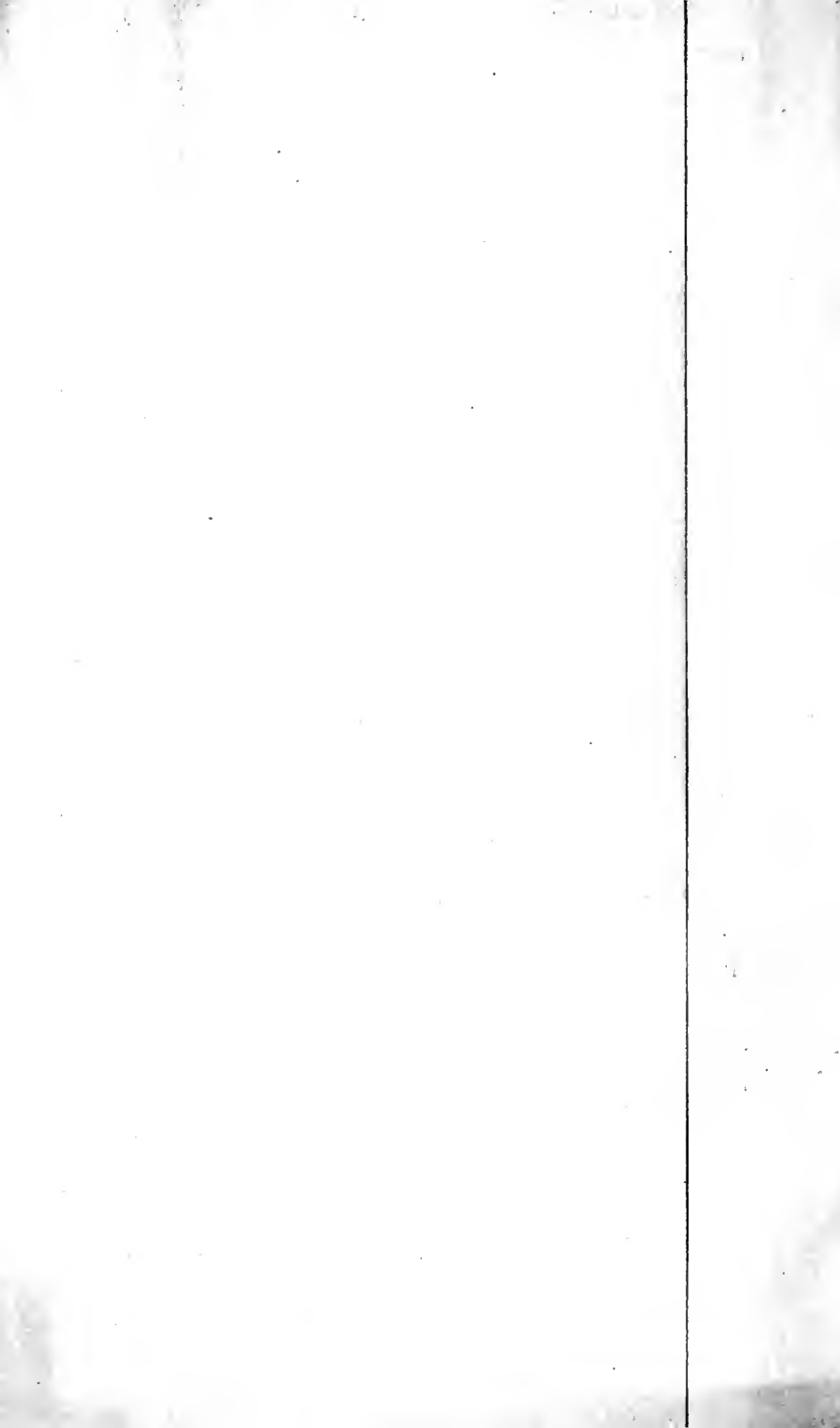
Obs. I. All Feminine Substantives are declined in the Plura

II. All Substantives with the unaccented terminations *edante, Glaube, Hause, Name, Same, Schade, Buchstabe, Willh.* Sing. *Felsen*, Dat. *Felsen*). *Schmerz* also has Gen. Sing. *Schm*

III. Foreign Substantives of the Masculine and Neuter *gts*).

IV. The words *Land, Ort, and Dorn*, form double Plura. The following double Plurals have acquired distinct significations

das Band	pl. Bänder, ribbons.	
	Bande, chains, ties.	ch.
die Bank	Bänke, benches.	
	Banken, banks.	gs, creatures.
das Bett	Bette, beds.	
	Betten, beddings.	



ns in the Sentence.

—166.

Predicate

expressed by a Verb¹ or Adjective².

III.

At Objective Combination, § 177—189.

(expresses a Notion of Activity).

Substantive *Adjective.*

Object,

in the Relations :

1. Of Causality⁶
2. Of Locality⁷
3. Of Time⁸
4. Of Manner⁹.

1. Der See Wasser, das kranke Kind. 4. Wilhelm der Eroberer. 5. Die
Bluthe des Führer folgen. 7. In die Kirche gehen, über den See
fahren. 8. setzen.

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